

RURAL SOCIOLOGY AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

**M.A., Sociology
Semester-II, Paper-III**



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FOREWORD

Since its establishment in 1976, Acharya Nagarjuna University has been forging ahead in the path of progress and dynamism, offering a variety of courses and research contributions. I am extremely happy that by gaining 'A+' grade from the NAAC in the year 2024, Acharya Nagarjuna University is offering educational opportunities at the UG, PG levels apart from research degrees to students from over 221 affiliated colleges spread over the two districts of Guntur and Prakasam.

The University has also started the Centre for Distance Education in 2003-04 with the aim of taking higher education to the door step of all the sectors of the society. The centre will be a great help to those who cannot join in colleges, those who cannot afford the exorbitant fees as regular students, and even to housewives desirous of pursuing higher studies. Acharya Nagarjuna University has started offering B.Sc., B.A., B.B.A., and B.Com courses at the Degree level and M.A., M.Com., M.Sc., M.B.A., and L.L.M., courses at the PG level from the academic year 2003-2004 onwards.

To facilitate easier understanding by students studying through the distance mode, these self-instruction materials have been prepared by eminent and experienced teachers. The lessons have been drafted with great care and expertise in the stipulated time by these teachers. Constructive ideas and scholarly suggestions are welcome from students and teachers involved respectively. Such ideas will be incorporated for the greater efficacy of this distance mode of education. For clarification of doubts and feedback, weekly classes and contact classes will be arranged at the UG and PG levels respectively.

It is my aim that students getting higher education through the Centre for Distance Education should improve their qualification, have better employment opportunities and in turn be part of country's progress. It is my fond desire that in the years to come, the Centre for Distance Education will go from strength to strength in the form of new courses and by catering to larger number of people. My congratulations to all the Directors, Academic Coordinators, Editors and Lesson-writers of the Centre who have helped in these endeavors.

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DEFINITION OF COMMUNITY

Objective

After reading this lesson, you will learn the following:

1. What is a community?
2. Types of communities
3. Geographical community or neighborhood
4. Definitions of community
5. Rural community

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1.1.1 Introduction

1.1.2 What is a community?

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1.1.1 Introduction

The concept of a conscious and diverse community in every aspect such as class, religion, age, gender, language, and caste, and secondly, to provide some tools and strategies to be more effective in your role as adult educators.

1.1.2 What is a community?

Community is a concept used to describe a social institution traditionally considered part of Indian society, such as an ethnic group, village, or religious division. Such communities are often considered natural groups based on shared blood, language,

Rural Sociology and Rural Development

1.2 Definition of Community

history, territory, and, most importantly, culture. (Upadhyay, 2006) In their revised book, *Lives in Context: The Art of Life History Research*, Coles and Knowles (2001: 11) defined community as 'groups of individual lives, associations, societies, and cultures'. Understanding some of the complexities, intricacies, and confusions in the life of a member of a community means gaining insight into the collective. Bill Lee (1992) defined community simply as a group of people who have something in common.

In Greek, it means "fellowship" or a group of people who come together for mutual support and to meet their basic needs.

For (1990), a community is 'a human system consisting of more than two people, in which members interact individually over time, where behavior and action are guided by collectively developed norms or collective decisions, and members can freely leave.'

(1979) defined a community as 'a collection of individuals who are aware of some problem or some broader goal, who have gone through a process of becoming aware of themselves and their environment, and who have formulated a group goal'.

As we can see from the above example, the concept of community as a concept implies a wide range of meanings. It is popular across many academic disciplines as well as in everyday usage. For some, it takes a long time for individuals to form a community, while for others it is possible to create it easily and quickly: when real estate developers use it to describe new buildings in terms of community, "the community comes near you". They use community as a product or a commodity to be bought, sold, or exchanged in the market. Often it is used to describe an organization or institution, such as an office, school, college, or university, to indicate a common spatial bond. At other times, we use it to talk about people who share a common characteristic, such as religion, caste, or language.

You will also find that the concepts of community, identity, and culture can be used interchangeably in the literature. The literature on the nature and function of community can be broadly divided into two opposing views. While some believe it is natural and vital for human well-being, others argue that communities are undemocratic and suppress individual growth and freedom. Our goal is to become familiar with these discussions.

Many scholars have examined the complex and fluid nature of community as a concept because it lends itself to many different interpretations. Recently, it has become prominent in the international development sector, rebuilding war-torn countries in the West. For example, the suffix or prefix, for example, building communities. One thing is certain; it signifies something good and desirable. You may have seen phrases like community development, community capacity building, community economic development, etc.

However, we cannot assume that community is always harmless and supportive. Like many families, it can also be oppressive. A community can hold onto a patriarchal, oppressive, exclusive, and undemocratic value system. In short, it can reflect all the ills of the larger society. Individuals may have no choice in their association with a community/culture or how they are perceived by the outside world. Furthermore, individuals are assumed to have a choice about their own; they voluntarily join a community, such as joining a trade union or a social club. This assumption may be wrong, as individuals may not be consciously aware of their "membership" with a particular community, with which they feel an affiliation. In fact, sometimes we become very disturbed and may be afraid when we appear to be part of a particular community. For example, because of my Muslim name, I am perceived as sympathetic to "terrorists" and pro-Pakistan, which results in me being isolated from the larger society. The "ignorant" out there not only make assumptions about people they know nothing about, but we (academics) also have stereotypes and biases, and it's a good place to start becoming aware and conscious of our own baggage. Now let's look at different types of communities.

1.1.3 Types of Communities

Before we go into the types of communities, it's worth noting that all communities are dynamic in nature. They operate, interact, develop, and change as a result of internal and external forces, as well as larger political and economic forces. Broadly speaking, there are three types of communities. We are all members of these types simultaneously, so they are not mutually exclusive. For example: I am an elderly woman who likes to walk in the park in Shahdara. Since I live in Shahdara, that makes me a member of that geographical community. When I meet other elderly women in the park, that makes me a member of the community of interest as well as identity. You will find that we all have many interests and identities and therefore belong to many communities simultaneously. At the same time, our interests change, and so does our identity. We will develop these ideas in some detail.

1.1.4 Geographical Community or Neighborhood

This is the only type of community on which there is agreement among scholars. It has physical boundaries such as a river or a street. A town can have many neighborhoods, each with some unique characteristics: caste, religion, rich and poor. Additionally, a neighborhood usually has a diverse population, with individuals and groups occupying different physical spaces. In a village or a city or a division of a town, it is important to note who lives in a clean place and who lives near an open drain, or who has more space and who has less: how far or close they are from the center of the village; how far they have to walk to get water, etc. It is instructive to see some patterns of physical exclusion and marginalization. In a geographical community, you will find examples of both identity communities and communities of interest, as well as intentional communities.

Identity Community

This refers to characteristics such as having commonly identifiable traits or a common culture. By culture, we mean: language, music, religion, customs, etc. Identity is also based on age, gender, and sexuality. This does not mean that a person must necessarily identify with the community to which he/she is identified as belonging. A woman may feel nothing in common with other women except that all women are women.

An identity community may or may not be geographically bound. For example, as a woman, I identify with women in my immediate locality, but I may not feel connected to women in Russia because I don't know them or their culture.

Community of Interest or Solidarity

1.5 Geographical community or neighborhood

This includes social movements such as women's rights, political parties, peace and environment, protecting trees, or public education. Communities of interest exist simultaneously in various geographical locations. Individuals can be connected to their community of interest at a local or global level.

A community of interest can be formal or informal, or both. In all cases, individuals voluntarily become part of this community. The individual level of involvement can range from being very active to occasional or passive. See Box 6.1 for what you should consider when thinking about your community of interest.

Intentional Community

In addition to the three types of communities mentioned above, observers refer to intentional communities. In this type of community, individuals voluntarily come together and support each other. Members may share interests as well as identity and/or geographical location. For example, mothers of young children meet once a week, or students form a study group, or retired seniors meet in a local park.

1.1.5 Definitions of Community

Many definitions and arguments in these notes are provided from Colin Bell and Howard Newby, *Community Studies: An Introduction to the Sociology of the Local Community*, George Allen and Unwin Limited: London, 1975. This is probably one of the best empirical and theoretical discussions about community.

Modern definitions of community have been strongly influenced by many of these unexamined assumptions.

G. Hillary, in an article published in 1955, found no less than 94 definitions of community with only one common element: all definitions deal with people. Bell and Newby summarized these definitions in an added table.

The general community refers to the use of the term community as a conceptual term. A rural community refers to a specific type of community (this is interesting because combining community with rural community is a product of classical heritage. Under "Social Interaction," we can see two priorities: one is space or "geographical area," and the other is "human involvement" (or black community or community of interests, virtual community). The environmental approach is not clearly explained. On the one hand, it describes the physical.

It refers to the behavior of its members and defines the benefits of their social participation. On the other hand, the community has its own life process, which is more or less considered stable. In other words, the community is considered a well-defined organization of all its parts, containing individuals and capacities that are not present in any of its parts.

In any context, three elements in this table are clear: social interaction, common relationships, and area. In these regulations, it is not strange to define the idea of community in two different ways in social science. Firstly, as a type of relationship, a sense of identity, commonality, or self among individuals; this is the meaning that clearly aligns with some theoretical arguments in social psychology. Secondly, to refer to a stable social system or a set of social relationships in a specific area, and to expand the common geographical base of a specific region (D. and H. Newby, The Department of Sociology, Sachin, see: London, 1983).

The first meaning of community is very critical, primarily because it does not adequately address problems related to conflict, social stratification, and power imbalance. The second meaning, on the other hand, is generally very neutral, which solves problems empirically in terms of the concept. As one of my colleagues once commented in a document, working with the concept of community is "like pulling teeth with your bare hands - you get some, but many remain." In these regulations, many social scientists have not wasted time in defining the theoretical problems of this concept.

1.1.6 Rural Community:

Rural society is considered one of the oldest institutions of mankind. Therefore, rural sociology primarily deals with the origin, nature, characteristics, social characteristics, and human environment of rural society. It also studies the stable and traditional nature of the customs, traditions, folkways, and norms, values, etc., that already exist in rural society.

Community: Definitions, Stability, and the Changing Concept of Community

Due to the concept of society, the concept of community is often wrongly defined and loosely used in social sciences. It is a word that has social and social meanings. It is used in an omnibus way to refer to many types of specific social divisions.

In general terms, the word 'community' is used for the gathering of people working on related types, such as "community of producers" or "community of farmers." It is also used to refer to a section of people who share common characteristics without necessarily residing in a specific area, such as "Hindu community," "Muslim community," or "Christian community." Sometimes, it is used to describe a cohesive group, such as 'the intimate community'. 'Society always focuses on the wrong and refers only to a negative mass of matter.'

This term is often used in social science literature to refer to population statuses such as rural society or urban community, which are characterized by ideal-distinct lifestyles in such areas; and social networks that share common characteristics with or without a common location.

It is also primarily used to centralize cultural differences as traditional communities and modern communities. The nineteenth-century sociologist, F. Tönnies, described as the founder of community theory, defined "community as a centralized, 'natural' social association in his book *Gemeinschaft und Gesellschaft* (Community and Society). Its members are bound together by a sense of belonging, covering the entire spectrum of human activities from intimate relationships. Tönnies differentiated this type of association from another, which he called association, which is organized voluntarily for specific purposes and whose members are bound by common norms or interests.

In the nineteenth century, this type of social affiliation was characterized by personal satisfaction, emotional depth, moral commitment, social harmony, and conformity. These were identified as characteristics observed in the transition from rural industrial society to urban industrial society.

Definitions:

Many attempts have been made to define the concept of society. These have taken two different directions - the 'centralized' concept and the 'environmental' concept of community. Scholars who examined the centralized concept (such as F. Tönnies and Max Weber), primarily focused on self,

personal relationships, and the identity of interests, while followers of the second concept, namely environmental science, highlighted its geographical or regional characteristics. For them, it is a collection that shares a common regional status of activities for daily activities.

R.E. Park (1921) stated:

"Community, in the broadest sense of the word, has a territorial and geographical meaning." In this geographical concept of community, there is an idea of precise and spatial occupation of a specific area. But community is not merely a geographical expression.

The relationships between people living in an area should be such that they form a community. To some extent, there should be interaction, institution, and isolation, some interaction and communication. By 'community', Robert meant that members "know each other" and have a common consciousness and identity, and they are not like those who exclude them.

MacIver and Page (1949):

"We call a group a community if its members - small or large - anywhere, live together sharing the basic conditions of life, rather than a specific interest." In another place, they defined it as "a strong group occupying a geographical area and living a common life."

Sociologically, the idea of community often involves some commitment, identity, and a sense of common life and participatory function. Therefore, intimate neighborhoods or religious groups are communities. From this perspective, Robert considered status groups like Indian castes as communities. But here, MacIver and Page disagreed with Robert, who did not consider castes as communities. They stated, "A social caste has social cohesion but lacks the territorial basis of a community." Many sociologists (past and present) have given great importance to the territorial nature of society, as we see in the following definitions.

According to Bogardus (Sociology, 1952), "Society is a social group that we experience and live in a specific area to some extent." Similarly, Eshleman and Cashion (Sociology, 1983) defined it as "a gathering of individuals in a geographical area, among whom there is some mutual identity, interdependence, or organization of activities." For Dalton (1991), "Society is the territorial or regional manifestation of a social institution, in which individuals have a sense of identity and belonging."

A recent textbook of sociology (Bex O'Donnell, 1997) elaborated on various definitions of community and categorized them into three main categories:

1. The term 'community' is used to describe a stable area (a given geographical area) as the basis of a social institution. Therefore, from this perspective, a traditional rural village is a society where people are born, live, and die.
2. Community is used to refer to a stable social system or a set of relationships concentrated in a given area. From a sociological perspective, the coherence of relationships is more important than the geographical aspect.

3. The term 'community' is also used to describe the quality of relationships that produce a strong sense of participatory identity. This use does not give any importance to the territorial or geographical aspect of community. It also does not depend on physical proximity or individuals meeting each other.

For the past few years, this third aspect of society has been gaining and being widely used. The old territorial role of community (which is now decaying) is relatively less, and the quality of relationships (a sense of belonging and participatory identity) is favorable.

Similarly, in villages, towns, cities, and modern situations, societies all over the world with all differences of race, culture, and interests. Not only this, youth subcultures, especially those committed to hip-hop or alternative thinking, are considered lifestyle communities. The common movement (Kumbh Mela) tried to provide territorial reality "to search for society."

By abstracting ideas of different writers, the characteristics of a community can be stated as follows:

- (1) A group of individuals.
- (2) A geographical area or region where they live (not applicable to modern communities).
- (3) A common culture and a social system that performs their activities.
- (4) A strong sense of unity and belonging among members (we-feeling).
- (5) Organized in a systematic way.
- (6) Division of labor as specific and interdependent functions.

Stability:

MacIver and Page (1949) identified two main characteristics of community:

(1) Area:

A community always occupies a territorial area. Almost all sociologists (e.g., A. Green, K. Davis, Lundberg, Bogardus, etc.) have stated this as a primary condition in their definitions of community. The strong sense of communal bond we identify among members of a community arises from the conditions of the area they inhabit in a specific geographical area. This bond is weakening today due to the modernization of communication. However, the extension of communication helps the regional bond in another way. Now, the territorial area of modern communities is expanding greatly. A common place does not automatically provide community. "A community of like-minded men" and "a community of world scholars" are individualizations that negate sharing a specific and defined territorial area.

(2) Community Sentiment:

Stability, though a necessary condition, is not sufficient to create a community. A common life, coupled with an understanding of the desire to share a common way of life, must necessarily exist. We cannot call territorial areas without social harmony a community. In such areas, there is no 'community sentiment', which is the most essential condition for the existence of a community. Community sentiment involves sufficient relationships and common interests to create a sense of identity with that area, i.e., a feeling of togetherness. This is a common feeling for them - memories, traditions, customs, and institutions. According to Alex Inkeles (What is Sociology, 1965), the following three aspects are relevant based on community.

A community exists:

- (1) When a collection of people is concentrated in a geographically defined area;
- (2) Their interactions demonstrate a significant level of overall social interaction; and
- (3) They have a common membership, a sense of belonging, which is not specifically based on blood relationships.

In this way, the essence of community is a common bond, shared identity, membership in a group, possessing some physical or spiritual qualities, common respect, accepting rights and responsibilities towards others. Thus identified (Alex Inkeles).

A naturally small community, such as a village, town, or neighborhood, integrates all these aspects. F. Tonnies (1887), L. Wirth (1938), and many other sociologists argued that as the size of a community increases, the nature of relationships among its members changes accordingly.

Wirth noted that community size prevents many individuals in the community from knowing each other. It also facilitates territorial (or physical) division based on race, ethnicity, social class, and lifestyle. Although physical proximity is an important aspect of community, it alone does not create a community. Direct face-to-face interaction is somewhat limited by symbolic interaction through the medium of communication.

Communities can be large due to a vast country, or they can be very small due to being a primitive tribe, group, nomadic group, or neighborhood. A village, town, or metropolis are other examples of society. Community exists in larger communities - a town in a state, a state in a country, and a country in world society.

There are some human groups for which there is no clear answer about the nature of their community. Such groups can be referred to as problematic cases such as a monastery, convent, migrant group, or prison. MacIver and Page accepted these groups as communities.

Changing Concept of Community:

Due to industrialization, urbanization, modern means of communication, and social technology, the type of 'perfect community', which is stable, communal, and a primary group, is appearing to be decaying. The stable form is increasingly intertwined with the larger economic and political society. Individuals no longer live primarily or excessively in primary groups but rather refer to the larger social world outside.

Individual interests have transcended stability and are integrated at the national or international level. As relationships have become more diverse and extensive, they have also become more formal and external. An individual has a personality, and in many or many groups, he participates with only a limited part of his whole self, not a specific, complete personality, nor is he commanded by any group, not even his family. Based on the ideas mentioned above, intimacy leads to anonymity, and some sociologists have put forward a thesis called "the loss of community."

The old characteristics of community, i.e., stability and community sentiment or 'we-feeling', are being eroded by the individuals of modernity. These individuals have broken the 'homogeneous community' approach. 'Muslim community', 'Hindu community', 'Black community', or 'Women's community' are now being taken as extreme examples by feminists versus traditionalists or liberals versus traditionalists or many other theories (e.g., strong versus weak). In many cases, it can be observed that women are not necessarily pro-women just because they are women or belong to a women's community. Finally, when we hear about newly developed concepts like 'global village' or 'global community', we can infer that the concept of community has changed unusually rapidly. Therefore, this concept is no longer limited to a single or limited geographical area.

1.1.7 Summary

The concept of a conscious and diverse community in every aspect such as class, religion, age, gender, language, and caste, and secondly, to provide some tools and strategies to be more effective in your role as adult educators.

1.1.8 Sample Questions

1. What is a community and briefly explain the types of communities?
2. Explain about geographical community or neighborhood and definitions of community.
3. Explain about rural community?

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APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF SOCIETY

Learning Objectives:

The objective of this lesson is to understand various approaches to rural development in India, identify differences between various approaches related to rural development in India, and explain various schemes and programs associated with them regarding rural development approaches in India.

Structure:

1.2.1 Introduction

1.2.2 Broad Front Approach:

1.2.3 Sectoral Approach:

1.2.4 Participatory Approach:

1.2.5 Regional Development Approach:

1.2.6 Target Approach:

1.2.7 Basic Needs Approach:

1.2.8 Production-Oriented Integrated Approach to Rural Development:

1.2.9 Integrated Development Approach:

1.2.10 Growth Center Approach:

1.2.11 Community-Based Development (CDD) or Approach:

1.2.12 Gandhian Approach and its Present Relevance:

1.2.13 Summary

1.2.14 Sample Questions

1.2.1 Introduction:

There are no universally accepted approaches to rural development. It is a choice influenced by time, place, and culture. The term rural development refers to the overall development of rural areas to improve the quality of life of rural people. In this context, it is a comprehensive and multi-faceted concept, and it includes the development of agriculture and

allied activities, village and cottage industries, and handicrafts, social and economic facilities, social services, and amenities, and above all, human resource development in rural areas. Therefore, the types of approaches related to rural development are as follows:

- i) Broad Front Approach:
- ii) Sectoral Approach:
- iii) Participatory Approach:
- iv) Regional Development Approach:
- v) Target Approach:
- vi) Basic Needs Approach:
- vii) Production-Oriented Integrated Approach to Rural Development:
- viii) Integrated Development Approach:
- ix) Growth Center Approach:
- x) Community-Based Development (CDD) or Approach:
- xi) Gandhian Approach and its Present Relevance:

1.2.2 Broad Front Approach:

Community Development and Panchayati Raj have been described as 'broad-front' or 'multi-faceted' development strategies as they aim at the overall development of villages covering all major sectors such as agriculture, animal husbandry, rural industries, communication, health, education, and women's welfare (Desai, 1983). In the early 1960s, India revised its rural development strategy and adopted a sectoral approach due to economic conditions, pressure needs, and priorities (Vyas, 1977). In this process, it initiated specific sectoral development activities such as the Intensive Agricultural District Program, Intensive Agricultural Area Program, Intensive Cattle Development Program, etc.

Although the sectoral approach to development has been largely successful in eliminating food shortages, it has also contributed to increasing regional imbalances and inequalities in society, subsequently significantly affecting the rural poor, i.e., the landless. Workers, artisans, marginal, and small farmers. As a result, India's development policy was revised once again in the late 1970s, making the development of the rural poor a primary element of rural development. Programs such as Antyodaya, Integrated Rural Development Program, and National Rural Employment Program are some of the initiatives introduced in India for the development of the rural poor. The current study attempts to review the performance of the Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP) with specific reference to the progress achieved

by beneficiaries and the problems they face in the development process. The theoretical introduction to the Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP) covers aspects related to its history, meaning, and scope.

In the early fifties, rural development efforts began with a multi-purpose approach, which included activities related to agriculture, animal husbandry, cooperation, irrigation, village and small-scale industries, health, sanitation, housing, transport and communication, women, and rural welfare. Employment. Community Development Programs (CDP) and National Extension Service (NES), launched in 1952, came under this approach. CDP, as a comprehensive approach, did not achieve the desired level of success. The program's impact was transient. The community development program was said to be like butter on a large bread, thus useless in a complex society. That is why it could not give much importance to the social class as expected. Critics also pointed out; i) it brought great inequality between rich and poor, ii) it hardly touched the problem of meeting the perceived needs of the people, iii) it failed to bring about the modernization process through social education, and iv) lack of people's participation. Despite criticisms of CDP and NES, we cannot deny the fact that this program added a new dimension to the change process and created social consciousness to solve community problems. The multi-purpose approach was an important approach that laid the foundation stone for the upliftment of rural India.

1.2.3 Sectoral Approach:

Sectoral development planning in individual sectors such as education, health, housing, and social security is included in the sectoral development approach. This approach advocates dividing development into various sectors in a watertight compartment and unrelated manner. Its inefficiency arose from this compartmentalized approach. Small efforts had to be made to integrate them.

By the 1960s, the food situation was very critical. A great concentration on food production was needed, leading to a strategy of identifying potential sectors and well-off districts and areas that could provide high agricultural output. More attention was paid to improving productivity per acre than expanding the area. Thus, the Intensive Agriculture Development Program (1960) (IADP) and later in 1963 the Intensive Agricultural Area Program (IAAP) were launched. Both IADP and IAAP were milestones in the development of agriculture, indeed in the rural sector of India. These programs placed agriculture on a qualitatively different base, with wide-ranging consequences for the rural scenario. These programs led to remarkable progress in overall agricultural output and productivity per hectare, but at the expense of social equality and social justice.

1.2.4 Participatory Approach:

This concept was developed from participatory development.

"Participatory development is a process through which stakeholders can influence and share control over development initiatives and decisions and resources that affect them" (ADB, 1996).

The process of engaging local populations in development projects.

PD uses local decision-making and capacities to manage and define the nature of intervention.

The objective of PD is to achieve a localized capital accumulation process based on development and local resource generation.

- A key feature of PD is social mobilization.
- PD gives a new self-confidence, through which the community engages in more ambitious projects involving collective action and management.

Scope and Participation Applications

- Participation in micro-level projects such as project planning and design decisions, project implementation, monitoring, and evaluation.
- Participation at the macro level, for example, participatory poverty assessments (PPAs) are designed to influence policy, especially in relation to development and poverty reduction strategies (Norton et al., 2001).
- Between the micro and macro levels, many exercises in participation at the intermediate or meso level, such as participatory budgeting in local governments and various types of territory-based rural development.

Types of Participation:

Passive Participation

Individuals providing information answer questions asked by extractive researchers, cannot influence research using surveys, etc. Consultation means individuals are consulted, and external agents listen to their opinions. Generally externally defined problems and solutions. Individuals do not truly participate in decision-making. Participation through material incentives means providing resources, e.g., labor. Less incentive for participation, e.g., agricultural research.

Groups are formed to achieve predetermined goals. Usually done after major project decisions are made, so initially dependent on outsiders, but can become self-reliant and enabled. Interactive participation means joint analysis for joint actions. Use of new local institutions or strengthening existing ones. Individuals have a stake in managing structures or practices, thus initiating and empowering. Self-mobilization already empowered, make decisions independently of external organizations. May or may not challenge existing unequal distributions of wealth and power.

Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) enable individuals to express and analyze the realities of their lives and conditions, plan themselves what actions to take, and monitor and evaluate the results. The difference is that PRA emphasizes processes that empower local people. However, RRA primarily appears as a tool for collecting information for outsiders (Chambers and Blackburn, 1996).

Key elements of the participatory development process:

Increased consciousness and group identity. Realizing the creative potential of the poor. Empowerment: rebuilding group identity, increasing consciousness, acquiring new skills, and upgrading their knowledge base. Participation: the power to break the vicious cycle of poverty.

Variations of Participatory Development Manifestations

Initiating 'mutual learning' to improve 'communication, listening, and learning' between development workers and those they serve.

Implementation

1. Information-sharing tools: News and updates through media
2. Consultation tools: Discussion forums, debates, focus groups, etc.
3. Collaborative planning tools: Establishment of local-level planning committees
4. Benefits: High initial cost but less expensive and more sustainable in the long run
5. More relevant to the local population than traditional development projects
6. Addressing criticisms of local needs
7. Expensive and slow
8. Smaller target population than traditional development
9. Treating everyone in communities equally.
10. Participatory approaches in rural poverty eradication diagnosis/project identification, community planning, and formulation. Identifying conditions leading to problems, determining priorities for their solution, and identifying and formulating project interventions that help solve some of those problems. Research and extension, innovation, knowledge. The research and development sector involves co-creative processes to identify needs and opportunities, generate new information and innovations, integrate them with existing practices, and translate them into learning objectives and activities for improved performance.

11. Natural resource management: Natural resource management development is a major area of application of participatory approaches to help manage natural resources available to the poor. Good governance and decentralization: Citizens expressing their interests individually or in groups, exercising their legal rights, and discussing their differences make good governance possible. In the broader area of governance, decentralization of decision-making to the local level is potentially important for participation; if done well, it leads to more responsive government and new opportunities for citizens to participate.

1.2.5 Regional Development Approach:

This approach suggests that the development of a region depends not only on the development of an adequate infrastructure network but also on the way in which the factors of the local economy are activated around the production infrastructure. In other words, for a region to develop, spatial and functional integration is necessary. This

Thus, while rural growth centers provide suitable locations for infrastructure development, their hinterlands are considered primary planning units for integrated multi-sectoral planning to achieve the comprehensive development of a region. This approach, taking into account regional poverty, provides a balance between various sectoral activities and the spatial growth pattern; however, it does not ensure that all classes and communities in rural areas share economic growth.

1.2.6 Target Approach:

Rural development, adapted to backward sectors/regions, has been redesigned to highlight the social and economic life improvement of a specific group of people. The target group includes marginal and small farmers, landless agricultural laborers, for whom special programs such as Small Farmer Development Agency (SFDA) and Marginal Farmer and Agricultural Laborer Development Agency (MFALDA) were launched. It has been observed that the target group approach has shown better results where information facilities are satisfactory and administrative and institutional arrangements are reasonably strong. This approach is intended to correct regional imbalances. In this regard, mention can be made of the Tribal Area Development Program (TADP, 1972), Hill Area Development Program (HADP, 1974-75), Drought Prone Area Program (DPAP, 1970), Desert Development Program (DDP, 1977-78), and Command Area Development Program (CADP, 1975). These programs have been very successful in terms of implementation.

1.2.7 Basic Needs Approach:

The Basic Needs Approach prioritizes the need for minimum living standards of the poor as a major element in development planning. Therefore, it contributes to formulating a development strategy with the objective of reducing poverty and inequality, promoting employment growth, and promoting distributive justice. The concept of basic needs has a broad scope covering

individual and social consumption and human rights, people's participation, employment, and growth with justice. In India, the Minimum Needs Program (MNP) was introduced in 1974 during the first year of the Fifth Plan period. The Fifth Plan proposed MNP with the objectives of establishing a network of basic services and social consumption facilities in all sectors up to nationally accepted norms within a specific timeframe. It is essentially an investment program in human resource development and attempts to improve the consumption of those living below the poverty line and thereby improve people's productive capacity and their quality of life. The main components of MNP are: (1) rural health, (2) rural education, (3) rural roads, (4) rural drinking water, (5) rural electrification, (6) house sites for the landless, (7) environmental improvement in slums, and (8) nutrition.

1.2.8 Employment-Oriented Integrated Approach to Rural Development:

To overcome the limitations of previous approaches and improve the quality of life of the poor living in rural areas, a multi-level, multi-sector, multi-departmental concept of Integrated Rural Development was launched in 1978-79. Various programs were brought under the single umbrella of the Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP). It aimed at accelerating the welfare and development of the poor based on Gandhiji's concept of Antyodaya. Many programs to create employment for the rural poor, namely, Rural Works Program, Rural Employment Guarantee Program, IRDP, Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM), Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA), and Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY) were introduced.

1.2.9 Integrated Development Approach:

In the context of problems with the Area Development approach to address rural poverty issues, a new strategy of development, i.e., the Integrated Development approach, was developed because the area development approach largely failed to address inequalities in the distribution of employment, incomes, and assets. It was found that mere geographical priority, as in the Area Development approach, was not sufficient in solving problems. The Indian economy and social structure are characterized by widespread poverty, poor health conditions, illiteracy, exploitation, unequal distribution of land and other assets, and lack of infrastructure and public utilities (roads, communications, etc.). Clearly, this

A comprehensive strategy for rural development needs an approach that considers all these factors to address the problem. With the need for a multi-purpose thrust in rural planning, the concept of "Integrated Rural Development" came into vogue. It emphasizes that various aspects of rural development affecting rural life are interrelated and cannot be viewed in isolation. Therefore, an integrated approach to rural development is necessary. Various aspects of rural life - growth of agriculture and allied activities, rural industrialization, education, health, public works, poverty eradication, and rural employment programs - are part of a comprehensive approach to rural development issues.

1.2.10 Growth Center Approach:

This is very suitable for planning integrated rural development. Based on the principle of "equal access," this approach ensures that these facilities, services, and local administration (Panchayats) are easily accessible to the population. A Growth Center should have all the necessary facilities:

[a] Training center for practical training and capacity building to enhance productivity in agriculture and rural/cottage/agro-based industries.

[b] Mobile training and demonstration unit to provide on-site training, repairs, and maintenance for agricultural and industrial machinery.

[c] Marketing-cum-warehousing facilities that can provide safe storage and marketing of agricultural products and cottage industry products.

[d] Forestry and grass nursery to provide fruits, fuel, fodder, and forest cover.

[e] Development school based on the "earn while you learn principle" and intended to develop a cadre of human, animal, plant, and soil health care and self-employed workers.

[f] Residential housing complex for workers in the project area.

1.2.11 Community-Based Development (CDD) or Approach:

This evolved from Community-Based Development (CBD), which is a development program that directly provides control of the development process, resources, and decision-making to community groups. The underlying assumption of CDD projects is that communities are the best judges of how to improve their lives and livelihoods, and if provided with adequate resources and information, they can organize themselves to provide for their immediate needs. Furthermore, CDD programs are motivated by their faith in people (Naidoo and Finn, 2001). Therefore, it suggested that people should transform their own environment into a powerful force for development. By treating poor people as assets and partners in the development process, previous studies have shown that CDD responds to local demands, is inclusive, and is more cost-effective compared to centrally led NGO-based programs. CDD is also supported by strengthening and financing community groups, facilitating community access to information, and promoting a favorable environment through policy and institutional reforms.

1.2.12 Gandhian Approach and its Present Relevance:

In the Gandhian ideal social order, the village is the primary unit. Gandhi briefly pointed out, "If the village perishes, India too will perish... We have to choose between the India of villages, as ancient as herself, and the India of cities, created by foreign domination." Gandhi's ideal village belongs to the pre-British era, where Indian villages would form a federation of autonomous self-governing republics.

According to Gandhiji, this federation would be brought about not by coercion or force, but by the voluntary proposal of each village republic to join such a federation. The function of the central authority would only be to coordinate the work of the various village republics and to supervise and manage matters of common interest such as education, basic industries, health, currency, banking, etc.

The central authority would have no power to impose its decisions on the village republics except through moral pressure or the power of persuasion. The economic system and transport system introduced by the British destroyed the "republican" character of the villages.

However, Gandhi admitted that in ancient times, tyranny and oppression were indeed practiced by feudal lords. But, "there were also inequalities." Today, inequalities are enormous. This is most disheartening." Thus, in the Gandhian scheme, the ancient 'republican', non-tyrannical, and non-exploitative Indian village serves as a model unit.

The different approaches to community development are as follows:

1. External Agent Approaches
2. Multiple Approaches
3. Internal Resource Approaches

1. External Agent Approaches

Appointing an external agent for community program development is the best approach. He convinces people through his personal skills and experience and motivates them to work for community development. He identifies various problems and finds suitable solutions for them. He discusses the situation with people, arranges meetings, and forms committees and village assemblies to highlight obstacles in development policies. Finally, this individual provides a policy for the community, and the entire community follows it for its development. The external agent approach is also called the administrative approach.

2. Multiple Approaches

In this approach, community development professionals try to provide various facilities such as health, education, sanitation, and recreation to control the causative factors in the path of community development. The basic philosophy of multiple approaches is to turn centuries into decades. The process of adoption should be remembered, and values, traditions, beliefs, and norms should be taken care of. Slowly, gradually, development should be provided to the community.

In this approach, some members are selected from the entire community. They promote various policies for the development and progress of the people. This approach is also called the

Representative Approach because these individuals act as representatives for the entire region in the community.

3. Internal Resource Approach

In this approach, local people are encouraged and inspired to utilize their resources for the development of their areas. These individuals are guided by representatives of the community through various internal activities. They arrange discussion meetings and provide advice and agreements in the community. Therefore, people are inspired to improve their overall community living standards by utilizing their internal resources.

This internal approach to community development is also called the Participatory Approach because people actually participate in the process of progress and benefit. This participation of members involves utilizing their skills and knowledge for community development.

1.2.13 Summary

There are no universally accepted approaches to rural development. It is a choice influenced by time, place, and culture. The term rural development refers to the overall development of rural areas to improve the quality of life of rural people. In this context, it is a comprehensive and multi-faceted concept, and it includes the development of agriculture and allied activities, village and cottage industries, and handicrafts, social and economic facilities, social services, and amenities, and above all, human resource development in rural areas. Therefore, there are various types of approaches to rural development such as Sectoral Approach, Area Development Approach, Integrated Development Approach, Growth Center Approach, and Community-Driven Development (CDD) or Approach.

1.2.14 Sample Questions

1. Write a brief note on Broad Front Approach, Sectoral Approach, Participatory Approach, and Area Development Approach?
2. Explain the production-oriented integrated approach to rural development?
3. Write about Growth Center Approach and Gandhian Approach and its present relevance?

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AGRICULTURAL AND PEASANT CHARACTERISTICS OF INDIAN RURAL COMMUNITES

1.3.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to explain the meaning, history, and characteristics of agriculture and its structure. Relationships and agricultural struggles: from before independence to after independence, characteristics of farmers and peasants, and the importance of peasant studies.

Structure of the Lesson

1.3.0 Objective of the Lesson

1.3.1 Introduction

1.3.2 Post-Independence Agricultural Structure

1.3.3 Agricultural Relations and Agricultural Struggles: From Pre-Independence to Post-Independence Periods

1.3.4 Agricultural Society: Meaning, History, and Characteristics

1.3.5 Characteristics of Agricultural Society:

1.3.6 Farmers and Peasants

1.3.7 Definition of Farmers and Peasants

1.3.8 Characteristics of Farmers and Peasants

1.3.9 Importance of Peasant Studies

1.3.10 Summary

1.3.11 Sample Questions

1.3.1 Introduction

The term agricultural structure refers to the framework of social relations within which all agricultural activities such as production, marketing, and consumption are organized. It determines how and by whom land and agricultural assets are owned and controlled, what crops can be grown and for what purpose, how income from agriculture is distributed, and how the agricultural sector is regulated or linked to the wider economic system or society (Shrey, 2009).

In an agrarian society like India, the majority of the population still lives in villages and is directly or indirectly dependent on agriculture for their livelihood. Ownership and control over land and agricultural assets continue to be associated with caste-based discrimination and oppression. Control over land, credit, and markets has led to a rigid class structure characterized by a strong hierarchy linked to land and land relations for some sections of the population. Additionally, agricultural relations in India have been marked by numerous struggles of the oppressed classes.

In human anthropology, the concept of farmer and peasant, as a class in society, gained prominence with the work of Robert Redfield, who introduced the study of peasants as part-society and part-culture. Although Kroeber (1948) in his book *Anthropology* gave the definition of peasants in only one paragraph, Redfield gave a central place to the study of peasants in anthropology. This was also one of the first attempts to study complex societies. Traditionally, anthropologists studied simple societies that were remotely located and largely primitive societies. However, since peasant societies are relatively complex, the study of complex societies by anthropologists began. Redfield introduced the concept of folk-urban continuum as a model to analyze complex societies. This provided anthropologists with a wider scope to apply the theory and methodology they had developed over the years to the study of various sections of humanity. In a way, Redfield initiated a move to expand the scope of anthropology from the study of simple societies to more complex ones.

1.3.2 Post-Independence Agricultural Structure

Independence from colonial rule ushered in a new era in the history of agricultural structure. The main objective of the Indian government was to change the stagnant and backward economic system and to ensure that the benefits of change and growth were not monopolized by a specific section of society. In this context, the Indian government introduced several measures. The main ones are:

Land Reforms

Land reforms in independent India found their basis in the constitution, which begins with a preamble based on four fundamental principles: justice, liberty, equality, and fraternity, and is further strengthened by certain specific provisions, especially the Directive Principles of State Policy. The state, in particular, directs its policies to ensure:

1. That citizens, men, and women equally, have the right to an adequate means of livelihood;
2. That the ownership and control of the material resources of the community are so distributed as best to subserve the common good;

3. That the operation of the economic system does not result in the concentration of wealth and means of production to the common detriment.

Among the most important efforts of the state to achieve these objectives are land reform measures. The Indian government instructed its states to abolish the intermediate tenure, regulate rents and tenancy rights, confer ownership rights on tenants, impose ceilings on holdings, distribute surplus land to the rural poor, and facilitate the consolidation of holdings. State governments approved a large number of laws in a short period. However, the actual implementation of these laws and their impact on the agricultural structure is a completely different story. Many of these laws had loopholes (Radhakrishnan, 1989) that allowed landlords to transfer their land, evict their tenants, and use other means to escape the laws.

Provisions for Institutional Credit

To weaken the hold of traditional moneylenders on farmers, the Indian government introduced various provisions for institutional credit. Cooperative credit societies and commercial banks were asked to provide loans to the agricultural sector on a priority basis. However, studies have shown that a large portion of their credit went to relatively affluent sections of the agricultural society, and the poor continued to rely on exploitative informal sources (Jodha, 1995).

Community Development Program (CDP)

This program, formulated based on American experiences, was launched on October 2, 1952, with the objective of achieving significant growth in agricultural production and improving primary services, which would ultimately lead to the overall development of all sections of the agricultural society. However, it failed in its objective and only benefited those who were already powerful in the village.

Green Revolution

The Green Revolution is an agricultural development project that includes various types of high-yielding varieties (HYV) of seeds and other production-enhancing inputs such as chemical fertilizers, controlled irrigation facilities, and pesticides. The components of the project also included providing efficient institutional credit facilities, marketing, and research facilities.

The Green Revolution led to a significant increase in agricultural production. However, it was not uniform for all sections of the agricultural society. While large farmers had their own resources to invest in agriculture with new inputs, for small farmers, it generally meant additional reliance on loans from informal sectors (Jodha, 1995). The Green Revolution completely led to a new type of dependency for farmers who produced crops that demanded a favorable agreement for the agricultural sector (Dhanagare, 1991).

Did the benefits of the Green Revolution 'marginalize' agricultural laborers? This is the most debated question in studies on agricultural change in independent India. It is almost

universally accepted among scholars that the Green Revolution generally enriched the rich, but it also increased economic inequalities in villages (Bardhan, 1970). Although agricultural laborers' wages increased, due to rising prices, their purchasing power decreased (Bagchi, 1982). The Green Revolution also helped agricultural laborers to free themselves from patronage and institutional dependency relationships (Berman, 1974). In short, it is estimated that due to the Green Revolution, a small class of large farmers established dominance over a large class of agricultural laborers.

1.3.3 Agricultural Relations and Agricultural Struggles: From Pre-Independence to Post-Independence Periods

Agricultural unrest is not a recent phenomenon. The history of India has recorded numerous agricultural revolts, uprisings, and revolts of varying intensities in many regions of the country. Peasant struggles before independence, wherever they occurred, were generally related to the exploitative landlord system of colonial power or the 'Jagirdari system' of local rulers. In this period, characterized by investment-driven by British rule, the protective attitude of landlords towards tenants was lost. The expansion of the primary commodity market also played a key role. The vast and favorable relationship that provided livelihood for many years became more explicit and rigid for good and bad years (Sakat, 1976). This change was primarily perceived as politically powerful, where the risk-taking farmer transferred his risk to large tenants. With the advent of colonial rule, landlords felt that there was no longer a need to worry about the livelihoods of tenant farmers.

In a subsistence economy, the status of a tenant farmer was no better than that of an agricultural laborer. While agricultural laborers suffered between crop failures, landlords and moneylenders - their owners - maintained individual granaries. Even though there was no incentive for diversification for environment-based production, intermediate farmers also suffered because there was a need to pay a specific 'fixed rent' (Moff, 1992). Middle-class and rich farmers wanted to control the traditional agricultural class structure by limiting their participation in commercial agriculture. Since both rich and middle-class farmers were affected by the income and commercial policies of colonial power, some common understanding united them in their struggle against landlords. Therefore, unlike in the past, the political economy of agricultural unrest often gave rise to broad movements of a specific 'class' nature, i.e., farmers vs. landlords. However, the unholy alliance between landlords and colonial power managed to keep peasant revolts localized and used brutal force to suppress unrest through such isolation (Chandramohan, 1998).

While the old system continued to be inherited in the post-independence period, some new developments emerged such as the Green Revolution (GR), commercialization in agriculture, land reforms, illiteracy, and common understanding, as well as an effective agricultural lobby that emerged in parliament and state legislatures.

New dimensions to agricultural relations in rural areas. Although GR was 'scale-neutral', it achieved remarkable success in areas with irrigation facilities where seed-fertilizer technology and water supply were provided. Areas that received good capital had an unequal share in government investment in agriculture, taking the major portion in the current expenditure in the form of inputs, electricity, water supply, and loans.

By the time GR was ready for the second phase, some new developments emerged in rural areas. While large landlords were falling due to input subsidies, government investments in irrigation, and a favorable share in profitable prices, middle-class farmers also benefited significantly, though not proportionally. Farmer castes and classes that produced crops consolidated their dominant social position in rural society and emerged as a powerful force in Indian politics (Bunyar, 1996). The backward linkage provided by caste affiliations and common interests helped to re-establish farmers with landlords. Therefore, unlike in the past, the interests of middle-class farmers were largely on par with the interests of large landlords in the post-GR period.

A notable difference is that the broad forms of the 'class' factor in the past have largely dissolved into 'caste' groups. This is not a surprising outcome when it is concentrated among certain sections of the poor and landless population, i.e., Scheduled Castes (SC), Scheduled Tribes (ST), and other weaker sections who constitute a major portion of agricultural laborers. In the 'semi-feudal system', landlords continued to dominate the means of production and controlled local resources such as land, labor, and credit, government funds spent locally, administrative and police powers, and often with private armies. It is noted that 'these are merely extensions of traditional powers exercised through caste dominance over subordinate castes.' Poor farmers generally identified with authorities in their own area against the law and economic power. Conversely, the dominant section of upper castes is often organized with the aim of caste/community solidarity. Although caste restrictions and social peculiarities have been broken in individual social behavior, they have been able to re-establish themselves in the political arena (Bagchi, 1993).

Another related difference is that, unlike previous radical peasant struggles (e.g., Telangana), agricultural conflicts in the post-independence period, especially in the early stages, also showed the emergence of large political mobilizations in the form of intense struggles and other forms of mobilization, with institutional and top-down intervention. For example, when landlords discovered the 'Saffron Revolution', the 'Kisan Sabha' came into existence in Uttar Pradesh as a counter-force for farmers (Rao, 1993). In response to various threats from landlords, peasant organizations launched 'Land Grab Movement' and 'Dhan Katti' (forced harvesting of landlords' crops) with the institution of 'Self-Defense Bands' (Ghosh, 1993). The difference between radicalism and traditionalism, the inability of landlords to recognize the demands of poor farmers and landless laborers, the landlords' extreme efforts to protect their interests, and forced labor have led to unrest among children.

In conclusion, we can say that from before independence to after independence, there have been some continuities as well as changes in agricultural relations. In other words, on the one hand, some elements of feudalism continue in the relations between landlords and farmers. Similarly, the commercialization of agriculture, which began during British rule, has reached new heights in the post-independence period, which has further worsened the condition of poor farmers and landless agricultural laborers. On the other hand, middle and rich farmers who have benefited from GR in some states have found a political voice. However, the agricultural relations have shifted from class-based inequalities to caste-based ones. Furthermore, the increase in violence and riots in peasant struggles has further worsened the situation.

In the present era, there is a favorable environment for the emergence of a broad peasant movement dominated by landless laborers, small and marginal farmers belonging to backward classes, and increased participation of women, to gain their rights politically and in development outcomes. States that are currently in conflict. It is hoped that if the state allows, the politicization of the agricultural laborers' movement will increase, and these radicals will eventually be brought into mainstream politics.

1.3.4 Agricultural Society: Meaning, History, and Characteristics

Agrarian Society: The word 'agrarian' means related to agriculture. An agrarian society is an economic system based on the production of crops and agricultural lands. The extent to which a country's population is economically dependent on agriculture also defines an agrarian society. In this society, not all people are engaged in agricultural activities, and although there are other means of livelihood, it is primarily practiced and emphasized. These societies trace their origin from the time of hunters and gatherers, and they have transformed into industrial societies. These societies are highly dependent on environment, weather, and seasonal factors.

Societies can be broadly divided into tribal societies, agrarian societies, and industrial societies. An agrarian society can be defined as a society where a large portion of its population derives its income from agriculture and related activities. The world has two-thirds to three-fourths of agrarian societies. After the industrial revolution, even today, primarily agrarian countries are the poorest countries.

History

Human society was formed by hunters in the past. Although the reasons are unclear, humans began to shift from hunting-gathering to agriculture 12,000 years ago, which also marked the end of the last ice age and the beginning of the Holocene epoch. This is called the Neolithic Revolution. Agriculture is believed to have started in the Fertile Crescent, extending from Iraq to Egypt.

Agriculture allowed people to settle down and form communities that led to new social structures and forms of human social organization. Ancient Egyptian civilization, Indian civilization,

Chinese civilization, and Roman civilization are all related to agriculture. After the Neolithic Revolution, the Industrial Revolution was the biggest revolution. In the last two hundred years, many societies have transformed into industrial societies, and the percentage of the world's population engaged in agriculture has steadily decreased as human effort has shifted to machinery.

1.3.5 Characteristics of Agricultural Society:

An agricultural society is identified by its occupational structure. People engage in small occupations such as counting and breeding animals and other related activities such as weaving, pottery, and blacksmithing.

Land ownership is unequal. There are landlords, cultivators, and sharecroppers or landless laborers. Landlords take landless laborers to work on their fields, while cultivators cultivate their own land.

Specialized roles are very few. Division of labor is not advanced and is generally based on age and gender differences. Society is homogeneous in terms of occupations, religious groups, values, culture, etc.

Life is centered around the village community system. Social hierarchies, lifestyles, habits, and attitudes are rigid. The family as an institution is central to agricultural society. Since all individuals in the family are engaged in agriculture, it functions not only as social support but also as an economic unit.

Industrialization has also impacted agricultural societies, and many of their primary characteristics have changed. They are not integrated social units unaffected by the outside world. Farmers have become commercial farmers and are selling their produce to support industrial communities. Social structures are not as rigid. In sociology, societies can naturally be seen progressing from tribal to agricultural and from agricultural to industrial societies. As agricultural production increases, more people begin to engage in commerce and other activities. If more than 50% of the people are engaged in non-agricultural activities, it is considered an industrial society. Today, all societies are trying to reduce their dependence on agriculture and shift towards industrialization.

Agriculture

Agrarianism is a social philosophy that considers the agricultural way of life superior to the industrial way of life. It emphasizes the superiority of simple rural life over the complexity and chaos of urban industrial life. It views rural society as self-sufficient and as fellow workers who cultivate the land with morality and spirituality. Industrial societies are seen as fragile and exploitative and are associated with a loss of independence and dignity. Industrial and

agricultural societies have inspired many ideas and theories that attempt to understand the dynamism between them and find an ideal way of life.

1.3.6 Farmers and Peasants

There is a clear link between farmers and market towns. Redfield unequivocally stated, "There were no peasants before the first cities" (1953:31). Kroeber was the first to recognize the relationship between farmers and the city. This is very clear from his now famous definition of farmers (1948: 284). This clearly indicates that farmers are linked to the market. However, in the words of James Scott (in Shanin, 1987), they are not swept away by markets.

A moral economy is guided by a specific economic logic.

As mentioned earlier, farmers are a diverse group. In this context, Redfield observed, "Peasant society and culture are generic (i.e.) an arrangement of humanity with some similarities worldwide" (1956: 25). In other words, despite diversity, farmers share many common characteristics. Another famous anthropologist, Burton Stein, said, "Peasant agricultural relations are elements of social and cultural systems; they are human adaptations to the natural environment within a social and cultural framework" (1980:16). This suggests that farmers are a social class with important characteristics, spread across rural areas worldwide, yet linked to urban centers.

Peasantry and gentry are considered two contradictions. Gentry is a class of people below the nobility, usually referred to as landlords, while peasants work for those who own land, as they are underdogs.

1.3.7 Definition of Farmers and Peasants

The credit for defining peasants goes to A.L. Kroeber. According to him, "Peasants form part-societies with part-cultures. They are definitely rural - yet live in relation to market towns; they form a class segment of a larger population. This usually includes urban centers as well... They lack the isolation, political autonomy, and self-sufficiency of tribal populations; but their local units retain their old identity, integration, and association with soil and worship" (1948: 284).

Peasantry is subject to groups of outsiders who do not engage in agriculture but can be defined by controlling them through various means. As a result, the peasantry has to produce not only for their livelihood but also for the demands of outsiders. Between these two, they always struggle to maintain a balance between their own and outsiders' demands. Farmers are always considered a source of cheap labor, which serves to increase the power of those who control them. This clearly indicates their underdog position (Wolf: 1946:13).

Susana Narotzky observed, "Some elements are common to all attempts to define peasants: agricultural production. Ownership of some means of production, control over land and

family labor, a tendency towards household and community reproduction, and subordination to appropriate surplus groups. ... The concept of peasant is often imbued with the idea of a natural economy. It described peasants as members of self-sufficient families. They can endlessly reproduce their livelihood and have a sense of value and purpose as a result of an inseparable relationship with nature and production. Although part of a larger society, peasants were understood to be part of communities, they were depicted as united by strong solidarity ties, collectively fighting against external aggressions of external power that priced the surplus" (2016:303). This description by Susana Narotzky provides a general, essential view of farmers and peasants.

Theodor Shanin (1975 and 1987) considers peasants 'a mystery' because in any village there will be rich and poor, landowning and tenant families as well as hired individuals, so that a 'smooth continuum of levels' is not visible. History, he added, "even a single 'same' will not have the same diversity in different years, decades, and centuries." In support of this, he provided examples of feudal Burgundy, slash and burn bushland in Tanzania, commercial Punjab, etc. Therefore, he pointed out the problem in defining the term peasant.

1.3.8 Characteristics of Farmers and Peasants

Theodor Shanin (1987) observed four distinct characteristics of peasant society:

1. The family farm is considered the primary unit of a multi-dimensional social organization, and production, labor, and consumption revolve around it.
2. Land cultivation is the primary source of livelihood, which is the basis for meeting consumption needs.
3. The traditional culture related to the lifestyle of small groups is unique to peasant societies.
4. Peasants are considered to be in a subordinate position and are dominated by outsiders who have complete control over them in all aspects: economic, political, social, or cultural.

It is very important to understand what distinguishes peasant societies from others. They are distinguished from others based on six important characteristics (Shanin, 1987):

1. Peasants are largely involved in extensive self-employment by utilizing their family labor in their production activities. Also, they have control over their means of production, and production is mostly for self-consumption.

They have multi-dimensional occupational skills (Galeski, 1972). As Eric Wolf (1966) observed, preference was given to growth instead of manufacturing, with an economy that maintained a specific balance of agriculture, animal husbandry, gathering,

and handicrafts. As Chayanov (in Shanin, 1987) stated, performance calculations differ from capitalist enterprises.

2. There is a greater amount of similarity among peasants regarding political organization patterns and preferences. For example, broker and patron systems, vertical division and factionalism, banditry, and guerrilla warfare.
3. There is a greater amount of similarity among peasant societies regarding norms and knowledge. They were considered traditional and conforming in their rationalizations with specific 'cognitive maps' such as the prevalence of oral traditions and a circular understanding of time, patterns of socialization, training, and ideological orientations.
4. The characteristic units of social organization and its functioning also show similarities among peasants worldwide.
5. Regarding social production, such as the production and reproduction of social relations, inheritance, and succession patterns, the analytically specific social dynamics of peasant societies can be easily identified.
6. The causes of structural transformation and its patterns are common and specific to peasants.

Based on this, it is very important to understand the distinction between peasants and 'primitive' cultivators. This distinction helps us understand that the concept of peasantry and peasant is different from primitive cultivators and other producers.

1.3.9 Importance of Peasant Studies

Eric Wolf, a pioneer in peasant studies, pointed out that expanding the scope of peasant studies had three important effects.

It brought a remarkable convergence in the efforts of sociologists, anthropologists, political scientists, and economic and social historians. A by-product of this convergence is a common interest in patron-client systems.

It stimulated a significant increase - perhaps not in broad-ranging, global theory - but in studies falling into the 'middle-range' scope between high-level abstraction and narrowly conceived local studies' theoretical efforts. These studies demonstrate growth in sophistication in both the questions asked and the types of materials used to provide answers... Therefore, concern with peasant problems has become one of the growth points of interdisciplinary comparative research through institutional organization rather than through convergences shared by many scholars.

"The appearance of *Etudes Rurales* in Paris, the *Journal of Peasant Studies* in London, and the *Peasant Newsletter* at the University of Pittsburgh, further spread this growing communication network" (1975: 386).

The study of peasant societies and village studies in India has disregarded many previously established concepts and provided a deeper understanding of the functioning of village society and its social structure. This has helped sociologists understand the nuances of rural society, economy, politics, value system, etc., which are important for rural development in India and other regions. Given this, the study of peasant societies has greater relevance today than before. Although we recognize that farmers have become somewhat like capitalists, their attitude towards farming continues. Their value system, way of thinking. The production perspective still continues in the peasant mold. Keeping this in mind, it is even more important for us to study peasant communities for better planning and policy formulation.

1.3.10 Summary

Agricultural relations in India should be understood in light of the agricultural structure and the changes it has undergone in various periods. The changes in India's agricultural structure can be broadly divided into three phases: pre-colonial phase, colonial phase, and post-colonial phase. In the pre-colonial phase, the ownership of land was entirely with the state or the king. However, the acquisition and use of land were based on religious principles. Therefore, according to the orientalist understanding, in the pre-colonial phase, Indian agricultural society was divided into self-sufficient, autonomous, and isolated village communities. In these village communities, all types of relations were organized around the caste institution.

However, in the colonial phase, the British introduced a new land revenue system, under which agriculture was commercialized. This new land revenue system created two social classes: landlords and peasants. The relations between these two classes were oppressive, with the former being the oppressors and the latter being oppressed. Overall, colonial rule brought peripheral capitalism to India, which produced a distorted form of 'generalized commodity production', as surplus agricultural produce was reinvested in metropolitan centers rather than in the local economy.

In the post-colonial phase, efforts were made to increase agricultural productivity and change the oppressive social relations between landlords and the working rural masses (peasants). The most important measure taken by the government was the introduction of land reforms. Land reforms were expected to lead to the abolition of intermediaries, tenancy reforms, land ceilings, and the consolidation of unequal landholdings.

However, land reforms were not effectively implemented and therefore failed to improve the conditions of farmers in many states of India. Furthermore, some other measures such as the introduction of modern technology and credit allocations were initiated. But overall, the ineffective implementation of land reforms could not significantly change agricultural relations.

Repeatedly, this has sparked peasant revolts and movements in various parts of India. These have been retaliated against by feudal castes many times through institutional means and sometimes through the use of force. However, the contradictory characteristic of the agricultural structure in independent India is that caste affiliations have returned to agricultural relations and play an important role in post-independence agricultural struggles.

Peasants form a large segment of humanity. Thanks to Redfield's efforts, they have now become a subject of interest for anthropologists and sociologists. Anthropologists who studied pre-literate societies found it somewhat easier to shift to studying peasant communities. This opened a new window for anthropologists to study complex societies. This has been beneficial both theoretically and methodologically. New concepts such as the folk-urban continuum have developed to see the relationships between rural and urban social structures.

This unit has attempted to explain the concept of peasantry and peasant and the way various scholars have tried to define them. Prominent among them are Kroeber, Redfield, Eric Wolf, and Theodor Shanin. Peasants are subordinate to outsiders who control them and extract both their produce and labor for their self-development. An attempt has also been made to understand the difference between peasants and primitive cultivators. We have also attempted to understand the characteristics of peasants and the debates about whether peasants are a distinct class or will disappear with the progress of capitalism.

We have tried to understand the relevance of peasant studies in today's context and examined the way peasant mentality works. It has been suggested that there is a greater need today to study peasant communities, especially for rural development policy and planning. Society

Peasant studies are even more important because we need to understand how much the social and economic transformation of society has affected peasants and agricultural production.

1.3.11 Sample Questions

1. Write a brief note on the period from pre-independence to post-independence?
2. Write easily about the meaning, history, and characteristics of agricultural society:
3. Explain the definition, characteristics of farmers and peasants.

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RURAL AND URBAN COMMUNITY DIFFERENCES

1.4.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to explain rural-urban differences: population and socio-cultural characteristics, the difference between rural and urban convergence, rural-urban fringe: definition, meaning, and its structure.

Structure of the Lesson

1.4.0 Objective of the Lesson

1.4.1 Introduction

1.4.2 Rural-Urban Differences: Population and Socio-Cultural Characteristics

1.4.3 Difference between Rural and Urban Convergence

1.4.4 Main Difference between the two societies as mentioned below:

1.4.5 Urban-Rural Contrast

1.4.6 Rural-Urban Fringe: Meaning and its Structure

1.4.7 Defining the Rural-Urban Fringe:

1.4.8 Structure of the Rural-Urban Fringe:

1.4.9 Summary

1.4.10 Sample Questions

1.4. 1 Introduction

According to Wirth, the typical social interactions of the city are impersonal, segmental (narrow in scope), superficial, temporary, and entirely practical or 'instrumental' in nature. He described these as 'secondary' contacts, entirely different from the 'primary' contacts in rural areas. According to Max Weber, the most basic characteristic of a city is that it functions as a market-place and it exhibits the relative predominance of commercial-trade relations.

1.4.2 Rural-Urban Differences: Population and Socio-Cultural Characteristics

Rural and urban communities can be distinguished from each other based on several criteria such as environment, homogeneity-heterogeneity, social stratification, mobility, and interaction:

Sociologists use the term 'community' to describe the quality of relationships that produce a strong sense of shared identity among individuals living in a stable geographical area. They described 'rural' as community and 'urban' as society. When sociologists assumed that society changes from traditional to modern, they actually contrasted pre-industrial, mostly rural, traditional society with industrial, mostly urban, modern society.

American sociologist Louis Wirth used the terms 'rural and urban' for different communities, while German sociologist Ferdinand Tonnies used 'Gemeinschaft and Gesellschaft', M. Durkheim 'mechanical and organic' solidarity, and Talcott Parsons 'traditional and modern' for cities.

Wirth (1938) distinguished urban from rural society, defining the city in terms of three primary characteristics: population size, density, and heterogeneity. According to these characteristics, although the city dweller experiences more human contacts than the rural dweller, he is more isolated due to the 'emotionally empty' nature of their contacts.

Rural and urban communities can be distinguished from each other based on several criteria such as environment, homogeneity-heterogeneity, social stratification, mobility, and interaction:

(1) The primary occupation of people in rural society is agriculture, while some individuals are also engaged in non-agricultural activities. People in urban society are primarily engaged in non-agricultural activities such as manufacturing, commerce, service, and crafts.

(2) Rural communities are small in size, while urban residential communities are large in size. In India, according to the 1991 census, out of 74.27% of the population living in rural areas, 36.57% live in villages with less than 2,000 people, 21.37% between 2,000 and 5,000, and 13.33% above 5,000. On the other hand, out of 25.73% of the population in urban areas, 0.72% live in urban areas with less than 10,000 people, 5.27% between 10,000 and 50,000, 2.75% between 50,000 and one lakh, and 16.4% above. (The above figures exclude the population of Assam and Jammu and Kashmir.) In 1991, the average household size in rural areas was 4.9 members and in urban areas 4.4 members.

(3) Population density in rural society is low (200 to 1,000 people per square mile), while in urban society, it is high (more than 1,000 people per square mile).

(4) People in rural areas are closer to nature, while people in urban areas are more surrounded by a man-made environment and are isolated from nature.

(5) Rural communities are more homogeneous, while urban communities are more heterogeneous.

(6) Rural communities are stratified based on caste and to a lesser extent on occupation, while urban communities are more stratified based on occupation.

(7) Mobility in rural areas is mostly from villages to villages and from villages to cities, while mobility in urban residential areas is mostly from one city to another. In 1991, out of 225 million migrants in the country, 17.7% migrated from rural areas to urban areas, 11.8% from urban to urban areas, 64.5% from rural to rural areas, and 6% from urban to rural areas.

(8) Relationships among people in rural areas are primarily personal and intimate, while in urban areas, relationships are more secondary, impersonal, general, and instrumental.

(9) The infant mortality rate in rural areas is one and a half times higher than in urban areas (80:49).

(10) The labor force participation rate in rural areas is three times higher than what is seen in urban areas. In 1993-94, it was 294 million in rural areas compared to 85.7 million in urban areas. Among men, it is three times lower (ratio of 189.3:67.3 million). Among women, it is five times higher (104.7:18.4 million). (Human Poverty Profile, India, 1998:129.)

(11) The number of working children in rural areas is 10 times higher than in urban areas (in 1991, it was 10.26 million compared to 1.03 million).

Social ties are based on intimate personal relationships of kinship and neighborhood. On the other hand, in a *Gesellschaft* type of urban society, social relations are more formal, contractual, utilitarian, and instrumental. Urban society has a weak family system and is characterized by the utilitarian objectives and impersonal and competitive nature of social relations.

Following the concepts of Durkheim (1933) related to mechanical and organic solidarity, it can be said that solidarity in rural society is mechanical, and in urban society, it is organic. Rural solidarity, based on homogeneity of values and behavior (i.e., everyone shares the same religious beliefs and habits), strong social control, and stratification based on tradition and kinship. It is characterized by simple division of labor, very low functionality in roles, few social roles, and very low status.

Urban society, based on organic solidarity, is characterized by unity based on a complex division of labor that requires the interdependence of a very large number of highly functional roles and the cooperation of almost all groups and individuals in society.

1.4.3 Difference between Rural and Urban Convergence

Many of the above-mentioned characteristics (historical rural-urban contrast) have now disappeared. Today, all types of urban and rural contrasts (dichotomies) are rapidly decreasing everywhere in the world, although the pace of this change varies from region to region.

Recent studies show that rural-urban contrast has become less pronounced than occupational contrast. Recent studies show that occupation is more important than rural or urban residence as a key to one's personality and lifestyle. The growing urban world is surrounded by problems of community integration and institution, and community functionality has become a growing concern in our urban society.

As previous writers (Tonnies, Durkheim, Simmel) observed, urbanization inevitably brings with it conditions such as anomie (lack of moral guidance for behavior), disorganization, and lack of primary group relationships. Some recent studies have found that with the growth of urbanization, primary group relationships are increasing in kinship and neighborhood groups.

When rural people migrate to the city, their social interaction, intimate response, identification, and sense of belonging depend more on kinship and caste people and other relatives, even if they are distant relatives (as we see in India). The increased proportion of secondary contacts in urbanization indicates a complete weakening of primary group life.

Today, with urban patterns extending to rural areas, rural life is undergoing urbanization. This development is somewhat uneven. Rural areas near large cities show the highest urbanization. Where agricultural practices and more remote areas are traditional, urban influence is less. But wherever we look, the steady urbanization of rural society is clearly visible. Not all, but many non-agricultural people in rural areas are urbanized, and their rural life has been strongly influenced by urbanization.

The growth of 'standardized villages' that weaken any simple rural-urban contrast. In Ariff Inayat (*The City in the Countryside*), R.E. Pahl focused our attention on the attack of standards on rural areas. In some villages, there are almost as many people working elsewhere as living there. This proximity can be easily seen in villages near areas like Mumbai, Delhi, Chennai, Kolkata.

1.4.4 Main Difference between the two societies as mentioned below:

Rural society is unindustrialized, while present urban society is highly urbanized and industrialized.

S. No.	Rural Society (Pre-Industrial Society)	Urban Society (Industrial Society)
1	Life in society is very simple, and is reflected in lifestyle, attire, habits, shelter, and respect, etc.	Life in the city is not simple but very complex and complicated.
2	Individuals in society are homogeneous and thus experience more or less social hierarchy.	People in the city belong to different castes, races, religions, and cultures, so they do not experience a single social hierarchy.
3	There is very little scope for occupational mobility in rural society.	In the city, there are many occupations, so occupational mobility is high.
4	Here, the family plays a very important and primary role. Its hold is very strong.	In the city, the family's hold is not strong, and many roles performed by families are taken over by other institutions and groups.
5	There is no rapid change in villages, and no need for social adjustment.	In the city, there is rapid mobility and adjustment to the rapidly changing life.
6	Culture in rural society is very deeply rooted. Everyone prefers culture and cultural heritage more than anything else.	In the city, it is difficult to find a pure culture.

7 | There is no division of labor in rural society. | In urban society, there is always division of labor and specialization in occupations.

8 | Rural society does not give due respect to women. | In urban societies, women are achieving relatively higher social status.

9 | In this society, people worship nature and natural things. They are religious and fear gods and goddesses. | In cities, people do not have time to see standing nature. They do not have religious thoughts, but are more materialistic.

10 | In this society, there are very few opportunities to provide employment and prospects to the unemployed. | Cities provide both prospects and employment to people, and thus villages that are suffering find peace in cities, which respects ability and determines their value.

1.4.5 Urban-Rural Contrast

Today's metropolitan cities in developed countries are characterized by rapid changes in social, political-economic, and cultural movements. Due to industrialization and complex changes, the urbanization process has been very rapid in developed countries. Therefore, urbanization has also led to a host of economic, social, and cultural problems. With urbanization, there is a change in individualistic tendencies and trends, regulations of residence and family, and standards have undergone drastic changes, and there has been a significant increase in anomie and disorganization. This has also led to mental and physical health problems. To understand and solve this complex situation, we need a planned study. And since the problems are severe and critical, governments are paying close attention to them. The necessity of urban sociology lies in this connection. An urban sociologist is a social doctor or engineer, and just like doctors and engineers, he is concerned with the organization and disorganization of urban society. Therefore, without his services, urban problems cannot be effectively solved. That is why there is a high demand for urban sociologists' services. To rebuild cities, the services of urban sociologists are very much needed.

Comparing rural and urban society is very difficult, and it has led to debates and confusion. Therefore, the common dichotomy between 'rural and urban' is a theoretical concept rather than a division based on the realities of social life. Indeed, the contrast between city and village is only one of degrees, and it is very difficult to identify a clear contrast between the two. Although the environment of city and village is different, a city has many types of environments similar to a village, but clearly, that part of the city cannot be called a village. Cities and villages both influence each other, and if we consider that villages have improved their literacy and education in some cases, and population changes also follow a similar birth rate and family size, then it becomes difficult to determine whether a place is urban. However, despite these difficulties, sociologists have shown the contrast between the two societies. The main ones are listed below.

1. Differences in Social Institutions - The biggest difference between rural and urban societies is social institutions. They show differences in the following aspects:
 1. Family - Families in villages and cities show the following differences: a) Families in villages are relatively stronger than families in cities, where more importance is given to the individual than the family. b) The joint family system is more visible in villages than in cities, with more members. c) There is more

control, intimacy, and institution in villages than in families in cities. d) In cities, like in villages, family roles are gradually decreasing.

2. Residence - a) In villages, there is a predominance of primary residences compared to cities. b) In cities, compared to villages, many types of residences are found. c) In cities, more freedom is allowed in choice of residence, as a part of life.
3. Status of Women - Generally, women in villages are not highly educated, and their social status is also low.
4. Progress - In villages, progress is more important than in cities, and sometimes people do not even know their progress.
5. We-feeling - It is found that 'we-feeling' is much stronger in rural society than in urban society. The influence of society on the individual is greater in villages than in cities.
6. Class Inequality - Class inequality is much higher in cities than in villages, and consequently, there are more conflicts in cities. In Bogardus' words, "Class intensities stratify the city."
7. Differences in Social Control - A great difference is clearly visible between the characteristics of social control in rural and urban societies. Regarding social control in villages, MacIver wrote, "In rural society, custom rules, followers, and behavior are more controlled." On the other hand, society in urban society does not have much control over individuals. In cities, with rapid and high-paced life, no one has time to look at others. As Kingsley Davis said, he can escape the suppressive control of any primary group when he disappears into a sea of strangers. But police, law, court, etc., control is higher in cities than in villages.
8. Differences in Social Interaction - Social interactions related to rural and urban societies show the following differences:
 1. Nature of Social Relations - In villages, social relations are very few compared to cities and are personal (generally) primary groups, family, close relations, etc. On the other hand, social relations in the city are numerous, and many of them are indirect and impersonal (relations are more towards secondary groups). In the words of Gist and Halbert, "The city promotes individuality rather than personal relations."
 2. Division of Labor and Functionality - In both cities and villages, division of labor and functionality are found to exist in the same place. In this way, the scope of social cooperation is much greater in cities than in villages.
 3. Competition - Competitive activities are much faster in cities than in villages.

4. Conflict - In villages, conflict is generally direct, while in the urban context, conflict is relatively indirect.
5. Status - Compared to villages, there is more status in cities, and consequently, there is more wealth at a higher level.
6. Assimilation - Due to the almost complete absence of cultural differences, the process of assimilation is very slow in villages. Urban dwellers of different cultures live side by side, and thus the process of assimilation happens very quickly.
7. Differences in Social Perspective - The following differences are found:
 1. Progressive - According to Newmeyer, "Rural culture is traditional." In Ross's words, "The city is cosmopolitan, while the country is nationalistic and patriotic." In this way, the city is more developed than the village.
 2. Politics - In cities, compared to villages, people are more interested and actively participate in politics.
 3. Religion and Customs - In villages, more importance is given to religion and customs than in cities. While the religion of rural people is based on belief, religion in the city is relatively based on reason.
 4. Adaptation - Rural people are more fatalistic than urban people because the lives of rural people are greatly influenced by natural factors, while urban people are equipped with scientific knowledge and technology to deal with natural calamities and disasters.
 5. Materialism - Urban people are more materialistic than rural people. As Bogardus wrote, "Rural people are clearly, openly, and truly; they accept the materialism of many aspects of city life."
 6. Differences in Social Mobility and Stability - Social disorganization is higher in cities than in villages. Quoting Sorokin and Zimmerman, "Rural society is like the calm water in a pond, and urban society is like the boiling water in a kettle. Stability is a characteristic feature of one; mobility is a characteristic feature of the other." In this way, villages, which are considered to be stagnant, have more mobility (regional, occupational, and other forms of social mobility).

Generally, migration takes more people from the country to the city, and only in times of social disaster are migrations from the city to the country more frequent than from the country to the city.

7. Differences in Economic Life - There are many differences between the economic lives of villages and cities. In this regard, the main differences are as follows:

1. Lifestyles - "Two primarily distinct ways of life distinguish the rural and urban worlds." In villages, the primary occupation is agriculture, while in cities, the primary occupations are industrial in nature (commerce, occupations, administration, etc.).
 2. Standard of Living - Standard of living in villages is lower than in cities because means of earning money are limited in villages. Besides earning more money, urban people are more exploitative than rural people. In Ross's words, "Country life, then 'Save!' City life 'Spend!'" At the same time, rural people do not have much to spend, while people in the city have enough money to buy goods for consumption.
7. Differences in Cultural Life -
1. Static - Culture is more stable in villages than in cities.
 2. Caste - In villages, the basis of culture is caste and purity. In cities, it is based on secular principles.
 3. Traditions - Traditions have a very important place in rural culture, while urban culture does not give much importance to them.
8. Physical Differences -:
1. Environment - In villages, nature always has an influence on the human environment, and there is a direct relationship with nature. On the other hand, in cities, there is more isolation from nature. Man-made environments are more important than natural ones.
 2. Size of Community - In the same country and at the same time, according to the rule. The size of the urban community is much larger than that of the rural community.
 3. Population Density - In the same country and at the same time, population density is lower in rural areas than in urban areas.
 4. Heterogeneity and Homogeneity of Urban Population - Rural societies are more homogeneous in social and mental characteristics. Urban population. Its time and is much more heterogeneous than the rural society in the country.

1.4.6 Rural-Urban Fringe: Meaning and its Structure

In mid-India, there used to be a clear boundary between the administrative urban center and the rural hinterlands, marked by a fort wall and a moat. Even where there were no walls, the

boundary between traditional Indian urban and rural areas was clearly defined. This division between urban and rural areas continues even today.

But, in the case of large towns and metropolitan cities, this boundary is blurred. New residential colonies, vast empty spaces, partially developed residential areas, some factories, commercial squatters, warehouses, and cold storages, timber yards, brick kilns, etc., symbolize the physical expansion of urban centers into rural hinterlands. The term rural-urban fringe has been used to refer to areas that have a mixture of rural and urban land use.

Compared to Western cities, the occurrence of rural-urban fringes in India is a recent phenomenon. This is because Indian cities developed slowly in the pre-independence period. Only after independence, with rapid rural-urban migration, did the rural-urban boundary become a common feature in large Indian cities. This indicates the saturation of living space in these cities. Urban growth in India has been typically unstable.

Post-independence physical expansion has primarily resulted in quick profits for private developers, industrial entrepreneurs, and businessmen.

Not only near these cities, but also the surrounding rural areas are passive witnesses to the emergence of such urban-rural fringe zones. Such a transformation also has its social dimension. In conditions of urban expansion, rural people get better employment opportunities. Over time, villages acquire a semi-urban way of life. This is a transitional phase between urban and rural societies.

1.4.7 Defining the Rural-Urban Fringe:

The concept of the rural-urban fringe also applies to other parts of the world. It is considered a transitional area between well-recognized urban land use and an area dedicated to agriculture. However, defining the rural-urban fringe based solely on these two aspects may not always be easy. For example, agricultural land may be within municipal limits, and it may not be easy to identify universally acceptable urban land uses.

Similarly, it may not be practical to consider some parts of a village in the rural zone, some parts in the urban zone, and some parts in the rural-urban fringe. This would unnecessarily lead to the disintegration of an integrated rural unit.

The inner boundary of the rural-urban fringe should not be confused with the legal limits of the city. Generally, the inner boundary of the rural-urban fringe is outside the city limits but within the boundary of the urban agglomeration.

Village areas located on the rural-urban boundary exhibit the following characteristics:

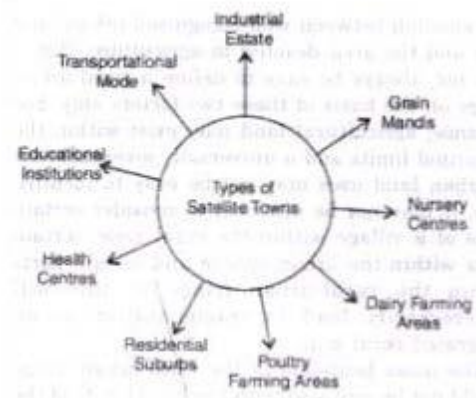
1. The cropping pattern shows a bias towards commercial crops such as fruits and vegetables.

2. The employment pattern is such that at least some portion of the adult population regularly commutes to the city for work.
3. Generally, strong ties with the city are reflected in the constant dependence of villagers on the city for various services.
4. There is a mixture of both rural and urban populations. This happens because city dwellers who came to occupy peripheral residential plots live in close proximity to the original rural inhabitants, some of whom may also commute to the city for work.

1.4.8 Structure of the Rural-Urban Fringe:

The rural-urban fringe has a complex structure. The city and its surrounding areas necessarily comprise two types of administrative areas - municipal towns or gram panchayats and revenue villages or gram panchayats. Small municipal towns closer to the main city lose their identity and are, in fact, part of the geographical city. The quality of services in these towns is comparable to that of the main city.

Towns farther away from the main city retain their distinct identity and have different problems related to urban facilities and transportation. The quality of these services is generally lower. Rural hinterlands also exhibit a specific level of diversity - agricultural land may have been converted into residential or industrial areas, or the entire area may remain completely rural. Daily commuters are the only link to the city. The rural fringe beyond the urban fringe comprises only villages and is affected to some extent by urbanization.



Suburban Areas:

Rural fringes may occasionally include a small town or several well-established townships. These are often referred to as inner ring towns. The term suburb is also used in this context, but its use is limited to the three colonial cities of Mumbai, Kolkata, and Chennai.

Satellite Town:

'Satellite' or 'dormitory towns are suburban areas of an urban center that grow into residential, industrial, and educational centers due to their locational advantage. Satellite towns are secondary settlements, which occasionally exhibit the form of twin-towns like Dehri and Dalmianagar in Rohtas district of Bihar; they can be easily connected to Patna, Barauni, Hajipur, Varanasi, and Mughalsarai.

The impact of satellite towns is demonstrated by their remarkable ability to absorb the excess population of the main city, thereby reducing urban problems associated with overpopulation in the main city. Examples include 'Lake View' in Lucknow, 'Devlok' in Meerut, 'South City' and 'Heritage City' in Delhi. Delhi-Noida and Hyderabad-Secunderabad in India are other famous examples.

Satellite towns are particularly fruitful in the SU (Sub-Urban) areas, and the study of satellite settlements for efficient administration, municipal services, and security is considered part and parcel of the urban hierarchy. Such satellite towns are of utmost importance, especially in fertile plain areas. Generally, satellite towns are cheap in terms of cost of living. In the USA, 24 percent of the 49 percent urban population lives in satellite towns.

1.4.9 Summary:

Compared to Western cities, the occurrence of rural-urban fringes in India is a recent phenomenon. This is because Indian cities developed slowly in the pre-independence period. Only after independence, with rapid rural-urban migration, did the rural-urban boundary become a common feature in large Indian cities. This indicates the saturation of living space in these cities. Urban growth in India has been typically unstable.

Post-independence physical expansion has primarily resulted in quick profits for private developers, industrial entrepreneurs, and businessmen.

Not only near these cities, but also the surrounding rural areas are passive witnesses to the emergence of such urban-rural fringe zones. Such a transformation also has its social dimension. In conditions of urban expansion, rural people get better employment opportunities. Over time, villages acquire a semi-urban way of life. This is a transitional phase between urban and rural societies.

1.4.10 Sample Questions:

1. Explain about: Population and socio-cultural characteristics.
2. Write about the main difference between rural and urban areas.
3. Explain about urban-rural contrast.

4. Write a brief note on rural-urban fringe: meaning and its structure.

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OWNERSHIP AND OPERATIONAL LAND HOLDINGS STRUCTURE IN INDIA

2.1.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to explain land ownership in India, the concept of the Jajmani system, and the main characteristics of the Jajmani system and land lease.

Structure of the Lesson

2.1.0 Objective of the Lesson

2.1.1 Introduction

2.1.2 Land Ownership in India

2.1.3 Concept of Jajmani System

2.1.4 Main Characteristics of Jajmani System

2.1.5 Land Lease

2.1.6 Summary

2.1.7 Self-Assessment Questions

2.1.1 Introduction

Agricultural land ownership increases parent-child co-residence in two ways: (1) Older parents may need help from adult children - mostly sons and their wives - in agricultural activities; and (2) Agriculture provides employment when there is no non-agricultural work available for those who cannot farm, so sons are less likely to split off and seek their fortune elsewhere. Therefore, a sole focus on intergenerational co-residence is not enough to identify the direction of power flow. Nevertheless, by viewing co-residence, intra-household resource use, and the locus of decision-making within a single framework, we can get a better handle on whether land ownership also affects the power balance within the household.

2.1.2 Land Ownership in India

One of the most remarkable developments in the second half of the twentieth century was the decline in average farm size and the increase in the number of small farms. The National Sample Survey (NSS) shows that between 1961 and 2002-03, the proportion of farms smaller than 1 hectare increased from 39 percent to nearly 70 percent of total farms, while the proportion of medium and large farms (4 hectares and above) decreased from 19 percent to 5 percent of total

farms (National Sample Survey Organization, 2006). Some initial decline in large farms occurred during land reforms immediately after independence, but in recent years, many changes have occurred due to land fragmentation linked to population growth. SDHI shows that in 2011-12, 43 percent of rural households were landless, and 27 percent owned agricultural plots smaller than half a hectare.

It is not easy to sell or transfer agricultural land in India. Despite significant efforts to computerize land records, titles often continue in the names of long-deceased individuals, and land boundaries are not clearly demarcated. Provisions intended to prevent the conversion of agricultural land to non-agricultural classification generally indicate that only a person holding a certificate confirming agriculture as a hereditary occupation can purchase agricultural land. These complexities make agricultural land a relatively long-term investment against uncertainty and inflation but not easily sold or transferred. According to IHDS data, among land-owning households, 82 percent obtained this land through inheritance/gift to a male member of the household, and another 9 percent held it as undivided family land. Thus, less than 10 percent of households had reusable land available.

Control over land is concentrated in patriarchal hands. IHDS asked about the household member who makes primary decisions on agricultural matters and also asked for the names of individuals holding land titles. The results presented in the table show that many households have the idea of mutual satisfaction, assuming it is a non-exploitative system.

2.1.3 Concept of Jajmani System

Inter-caste relations at the village level form vertical relations. They can be classified as economic, ritual, political, and civil relations. Caste groups living in villages are connected by economic relations.

Generally, farmer castes are numerically dominant in villages and need carpentry, blacksmith, and leather worker castes to perform agricultural tasks.

Service caste groups like priests, barbers, and washermen serve the needs of everyone except Harijans. Artisan castes produce goods needed by everyone.

Many Indian villages lack some important castes and depend on neighboring villages for services, skills, and goods.

In rural India, with a largely subsistence and not fully monetized economy, the relationship between different caste groups in a village takes a specific form. Necessary artisans and service-providing castes are paid grain annually at harvest time. In some parts of India, artisans and service-providing castes are also provided free food, clothing, fodder, and living space. On occasions like birth, marriage, and death, these castes perform additional duties, for which they are paid ritual money and some gifts.

Oscar Lewis defined the "Jajmani system as every caste group in a village is expected to provide specific standardized services to families of other castes."

Jajmani is more than a relationship between families than between castes.

Jajmani involves a reciprocal relationship in which one family is hereditarily entitled to supply goods and provide services in return for another.

The person who provides services or supplies goods is called Kamin, and the person who receives the services is called Jajman.

Thus, in the Jajmani system, a permanent informal bond is formed between Jajman and Kamin to meet each other's needs for goods and services.

2.1.4 Main Characteristics of Jajmani System

The following characteristics categorize the Jajmani system:

- a) **Uninterrupted Relationship** - In the Jajmani system, the Kamin is responsible for providing services to a specific Jajman for his entire life, and the Jajman is responsible for appointing the Kamin's services.
- b) **Hereditary Relationship** - Jajmani rights are enjoyed hereditarily. After a person's death, his son is eligible to work as a Kamin for the same Jajman family. A Jajman's son also accepts the Kamin's son as his Kamin.
- c) **Multidimensional Relationship** - Due to the permanence of the relationship, both Jajman and Kamin families depend on each other. The relationship becomes very deep. They often participate in personal and family affairs, family rituals, and ceremonies.
- d) **Barter** - In the Jajmani system, payments are primarily in terms of goods and commodities. The Kamin receives his needs from the Jajman in return for his services.

The Jajmani system in society gradually declined due to many reasons. The modern economic system measures everything in terms of monetary value. Faith in the caste system declined, and the hereditary occupational system suffered a strong blow. The growth of better employment opportunities outside the village and the introduction of new transportation options.

Operational Holdings: An operational holding is defined as a techno-economic unit used wholly or partly for agricultural production (defined below) and a location (designated/managed) by one person alone or with the help of others, regardless of title, size, or relationship. A holding may consist of one or more parcels of land, which are within the country and are part of the same technical unit. In the context of agricultural activities, a technical unit is a more or less independent unit with technical resources covering items like land, agricultural implements and machinery, draft animals, etc. Holdings used exclusively for livestock and poultry farming and for the production of livestock and poultry products (primary) and/or pisciculture are considered operational holdings, while holdings kept exclusively for purposes other than agricultural

production are not considered operational holdings. Holdings managed by cooperative farms are also not considered operational holdings.

Technical resource unit. Holdings exclusively used for livestock and poultry farming and for the production of livestock and poultry products (primary) and/or pisciculture are considered operational holdings, while holdings kept exclusively for purposes other than agricultural production are not considered operational holdings. Holdings managed by cooperative farms are also not considered operational holdings.

Agricultural Production: The broad definition of agricultural production, as adopted in the survey, includes crops, fruits, grapes, nuts, seeds, tree nurseries (excluding forest trees), tubers, vegetables, and flowers grown outdoors and in glasshouses; coffee, tea, cocoa, rubber production, livestock and livestock products, poultry and poultry products, fish, honey, rabbits, fur-bearing animals, and silk. Forest produce in plots that are part of the enumeration and production of insect cocoons.

Individual and Joint Holdings: An operational holding managed by members of the same household is taken as an individual holding, and a holding jointly managed by members of different households is considered a joint holding.

Parcel: A parcel of an operational holding is a piece of land completely surrounded by other operational holdings or land that is not part of any operational holding. It may consist of one or more plots.

Ownership: (i) If a member or members of the household have permanent hereditary possession with or without the right to transfer title, that land is considered to belong to a household. Land in owner-like possession under long-term lease or assignment was also considered land ownership. Thus, in determining land ownership, there are two primary factors, namely,

(a) Land owned by the household, i.e., pattadars, bhumidars, jenmons, landlords, raiyats, pattadars, bhumidars, jenmons, e.g., sitibans, etc., may lease land to others without losing the right of permanent hereditary possession by the owner.

(b) Land held in special circumstances where the holder does not have a title of ownership. Land that has been in long-term possession (for example, under permanent lease, hereditary tenure, and long-term lease for 30 years or more) was considered to be in owner-like possession. In states where land reform laws provided limited ownership rights to former tenants, even if they did not pay full compensation, they were considered to have owner-like possession.

(ii) Sometimes, a tribal may hold a plot in accordance with traditional tribal rights from local leaders or village/district councils. Again, a plot may be occupied by a tenant, but the

ownership right remains with the community. In both cases, the tribal or other person (tenant) was taken as the owner, because in all such cases, the holder has owner-like land in question.

2.1.5 Land Lease:

(i) Land given by the landowner to others on lease or for free without transferring permanent hereditary rights is defined as leased land. If a house is taken on rent or for free without the right to permanent or hereditary possession, it is defined as leased land. The lease agreement may be in writing or oral.

(ii) Sometimes, fruit orchards and gardens are given to others to harvest produce, for which the owner receives payment in cash or in kind. For the purpose of the survey, such transactions were not considered 'lease'.

Land otherwise occupied: This means all government/institutional land occupied by the household without ownership or occupancy rights. Occupied without owner's permission. Private land held by a family without ownership and occupancy rights (i.e., land owned by the household sector) was not included in this category. According to the 37th round survey, all private land occupied by households was considered leased land.

Homestead: (i) The house of a household is defined as a residential house, including its premises, compound, garden, out-house, place of worship, family graveyard, guest house, shop, workshop, and offices for running the house. Institutions, tanks, wells, latrines, drains, and boundary walls are attached to the residential house. The entire land coming under homestead was defined as homestead land.

(ii) A part of the homestead plot may contain only a part. Sometimes, gardens, orchards, or plantations, although adjacent to the homestead plot and within the boundary walls, may be in a distinctly different land area. In such cases, the land under the garden, orchard, or plantation is not considered homestead land.

Land use in holdings: The land classification system used for this report is based on land use in the agricultural year. Definitions of various classes of land relevant to the report are given below:

(1) Forest: This includes all areas actually under forest or land so classified under any legal enactment or administered as forest, whether owned by government or private. If any part of such land is not actually covered with trees, but is used for cultivation of crops in the field, it is treated in the net sown area and not under forest. All plots under social and agricultural forestry are included in this category.

(2) Orchards: Land put to the production of horticultural crops, i.e., fruits, nuts, dates, grapes, etc. (excluding those considered plantation crops), is considered an orchard if it is at least 0.10 hectares in size or has at least 12 trees planted on it. In the case of such fruit trees where the

spacing between trees is very large, as in mangoes, say more than six meters, the orchard is defined according to the minimum number of 12 trees planted in it. Similarly, in the case of banana, papaya, grapevines, etc., where the spacing is less than six meters, the orchard is defined based on the minimum area of 1/10th of a hectare.

(3) Plantations: The area dedicated to the production of plantation crops, i.e., tea, coffee, cashew, rubber, coconut, cardamom, rubber, cocoa, areca nut, amla, cloves, and nutmeg, is considered under plantations. The area limit given for plantations also applies to plantations.

(4) Area under seasonal crop: The total land in the net sown area, excluding orchards or plantations, is considered under seasonal crops. Sometimes, the net sown area includes land with a mixture of the three uses mentioned above. In such cases, the use of the predominant area of land is considered as the 'use' of the land.

(5) Land put to non-agricultural uses: This includes land occupied by buildings, roads, etc., or under water (tanks, wells, canals, etc.) and land used for purposes other than agricultural needs. For the purpose of this survey, this class of land has been divided into two categories:

(a) Water Resources: All land that is actually under water is defined as water resources, regardless of what crops are grown on it.

(b) Other non-agricultural uses: All land put to other non-agricultural uses, i.e., buildings, roads, railways, etc., is classified as land put to other non-agricultural uses.

(6) Other uses: This includes "culturable waste," "other tree crops and groves not included in net sown area," "permanent pastures and other grazing lands," and the total land coming under the remaining categories of the nine-fold classification. "Fallow land" and "barren and unculturable waste."

Irrigation: Irrigation is considered a process of intentionally supplying water to land without relying on rainfall for crop production through artificial means.

Lease Terms: Various lease terms under which land is leased to tenant families: (1) for a fixed amount of money; (2) for a fixed amount of produce; (3) for a share of produce; (4) for a fixed amount of labor; (5) for a share of produce combined with other terms; (6) under crop-sharing; (7) from relatives under specific terms; and (8) under other terms.

2.1.6 Summary

Agricultural Production: The broad definition of agricultural production, as adopted in the survey, includes crops, fruits, grapes, nuts, seeds, tree nurseries (excluding forest trees), tubers, vegetables, and flowers grown outdoors and in glasshouses; coffee, tea, cocoa, rubber production, livestock and livestock products, poultry and poultry products, fish, honey, rabbits,

fur-bearing animals, and silk. Forest produce in plots that are part of the enumeration and production of insect cocoons.

2.1.7 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Explain land ownership in India.
2. Write a brief note on the concept of the Jajmani system.
3. Write an essay on the main characteristics of the Jajmani system and land lease.

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CHANGING CHARACTER OF LAND DISTRIBUTION

2.2.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to explain the changing land use pattern in land distribution and to review the historical explanations of land distribution and changes in land use patterns.

Structure of the Lesson

2.2.0 Objective of the Lesson

2.2.1 Introduction

2.2.2 Overview of Historical Explanations of Land Distribution

2.2.3 Mutual Effects of Land Distribution and Economic Development:

2.2.4 Land Distribution and Use

2.2.5 Changes in Land Use Pattern

2.2.6 Land Distribution according to Problems

2.2.7 Summary

2.2.8 Self-Assessment Questions

2.2.1 Introduction

Fiber, fuel for the growing human population, fodder for animals, and industrial raw materials for agricultural-based industries are in increasing demand. Efficient management of natural resources like soil and water plays a key role in crop production. In 2002-2003 and 2009-10, we observed drought conditions; in 2005, floods hit Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, and Himachal Pradesh, causing severe damage to property, Assam, agricultural land, and livestock. Towns/cities and rural villages are also losing good agricultural land every year for non-agricultural needs. Our lands are small and also very fragmented. The water table is gradually decreasing due to excessive pumping of groundwater. Food security, poverty, equity, and resource sustainability are primary concerns for all of us.

We are losing agricultural land. Our lands are small and also very fragmented. The water table is gradually decreasing due to excessive pumping of groundwater. Food security, poverty, equity, and resource sustainability are primary concerns for all of us.

2.2.2 Overview of Historical Explanations of Land Distribution

The historical approaches that define the distribution of land assets in each country are related to legal frameworks, political influence, the distribution of political power, and the ability of the political system to address land demands related to growth. The objective of Alavarez and Vilalbal (2013) was to show the impact of unifying land-ownership systems based on income distribution and economic development in the context of the first globalization period (Argentina, Australia, New Zealand, and Uruguay). Their approach suggested that the division of political and economic powers (wealth distribution), institutional changes, and the activation of economic institutions determine the outcome. Based on their research, two different land and asset distribution patterns were identified in Australia and River Plate. Both are related to settler-related, long-term path dependencies, institutional frameworks that control land distribution, and political power generated by different socio-construction agents. This study shows that "ownership rights" are a good example and that there is a strong need to control the application of forest land for many states. Tenure is a set of legally or commonly defined connections between individuals related to land, or the way land is owned or occupied by groups. The evolution of the tenure system has occurred gradually over decades and has continued to change over time. Sometimes, revolutions have impacted tenure systems, such as the abolition of land-ownership systems or forced land acquisition available during various revolutionary periods. Land-ownership systems vary between and within countries. They are based on cultural and historical diversity, including traditional land and/or legal rights and associated resources, as well as social relations between different parts of society. Reviewing the historical aspects of land-ownership settings is necessary when analyzing their long-term economic impact, thereby benefiting the growth of developing countries in a stable manner through land policy. Table 1 shows various types of land tenures over time with their potential impact on land distribution and productivity. The customary tenure system is the most commonly used tenure system in the developing world; it covers 70% of Kenya's land. Higgins and others (2016) systematically reviewed available evidence to investigate the many impacts of increased land-ownership security on rural households. Their research involved quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis on this aspect, and the theory of change mediated by the expected impacts of key security activities related to land tenure. The results showed strong evidence for positive impacts on productive and environmental agricultural investment and gender equality in land-ownership security, but no link to productivity, credit access, and income. This study is a good example of "land productivity impacts" and "tenure security."

2.2.3 Mutual Effects of Land Distribution and Economic Development:

Since early economists like David Ricardo and Thomas Malthus dedicated their research to economic development studies, land distribution has been central to economic development analysis worldwide. However, unlike the concepts of education and trade, which were long at the forefront of economic development history in the 1970s, land governance was not at the forefront in the view of development analysts. When considering economic and social development, proper land policies are very important for poor countries in many ways. Outdated

land regulations, insecure land tenure, and institutions with slow or unstable land governance can limit private investment, weaken property rights, and reduce the ability of local governments to raise revenues. Unequal land ownership distributions and patterns of land access based on sector or caste limit market functions for land use and reduce economic opportunities for backward groups. Economists and sociologists have opined that improving land distribution is desirable according to development theories. However, they have debated how to implement development theories that are sensitive to poor land distribution. In economic theories, the view on land has changed over time. Ricardo's early and prominent ideas and von Thünen's model laid the foundation for land-price and land-use theories in a regional context; they are still legal and are used to some extent in current research. Ricardo's land models explain land rents as a consequence of variations in fertility or, more generally, differences in land quality [43]. High-quality land produces some low-quality surplus on land, which is paid as rent to the landowner due to competition in the land and agricultural production sector.

That being said, a single economic development path has not been identified for all countries. Economic development processes require long-term, new, emerging factors and policy revisions that reflect trends. These economic development policies must necessarily consider the impacts of social, cultural, political, and institutional systems and their variable pressure actions over time in the country. In any context, starting with limited planning is beneficial; land to be removed for the implementation of the above-mentioned economic theory should be available.

2.2.4 Land Distribution and Use

Land is a very crucial resource. We must use it very wisely. If we look at land in a specific area, its use has changed significantly since the country gained independence. We can observe that large agricultural areas in towns/cities are being used for non-agricultural purposes in an unplanned manner. In the Panchayati Raj system, due to increasing population, even barren land is being used for housing. Some part of this barren land is also getting eroded due to salinity. The future needs of the growing population must be met by managing land use very wisely for reproduction and productivity. The size of holdings is decreasing due to family division. We must monitor changes in key resources for agriculture. Let's analyze the situation in the country.

2.2.5 Changes in Land Use Pattern

After independence, significant changes are visible in land use patterns everywhere. In India, agricultural land use has been from 1950-51 to 2013-14. Looking at the table, it is evident that the forest area, which was 40.48 million hectares (Mha) in 1950-51, increased to 71.83 Mha by 2013-14. This is due to the increased awareness and participation of the government, non-governmental organizations, and the public. The area under non-agricultural uses is continuously increasing. It increased from 9.36 Mha in 1950-51 to 26.91 Mha by 2013-14. Available data does not indicate how much prime agricultural land has been removed for non-agricultural purposes

(urban development, setting up industries, etc.). It is often reported that unplanned urbanization leads to the conversion of prime agricultural land to non-agricultural uses. We can also observe that large agricultural areas in towns/cities are being used for non-agricultural purposes in an unplanned manner. The proportion of barren and unculturable lands, land under various trees, orchards, etc., culturable waste, and permanent pastures has significantly decreased from 38.16, 19.83, 22.94, and 17.45 Mha in 1950-51 to 10.69 Mha respectively in 2013-14. The net sown area, which was 118.75 Mha in 1950-51, increased to 141.43 Mha by 2013-14. This happened mainly due to the expansion of cultivation.

2.2.6 Land Distribution according to Problems

Land distribution according to problems such as water erosion, wind erosion, salt-affected, and waterlogged soils is discussed in the following section.

(a) Water Erosion: It takes nature 500 to 1000 years to develop 2.5 cm of soil. Agricultural productivity largely depends on the topsoil (20 cm) because it performs many functions (rooting zone for crops, supplies nutrients to crops, stores and releases soil moisture, etc.). Losing soil due to reduced productivity is a very serious problem of degradation. Development activities such as large-scale deforestation, road construction, and large-scale construction, burning, cultivation on very steep and high slopes in the Himalayas and Western Ghats are causes of degradation. Approximately 119.6 million hectares of land are prone to soil erosion. Scientists from ICAR Research Complex for North Eastern Hill Region have conducted extensive studies on changing cultivation area in the North East region and found that soil erosion depends on slope, type of cover, and type of crops grown. Shifting cultivation removes 50 tons of soil per hectare in the first year and 180 tons/hectare in the second year. Due to faulty cultivation methods on hill slopes, an average of 80 tons of soil is removed annually. Scientists at the Central Soil & Water Conservation and Training Institute in Dehradun have estimated that approximately 6000 million tons of soil are eroded annually. And 29 percent of that permanently flows into the sea, 10 percent accumulates in reservoirs, consequently reducing their storage capacity by 1 to 2 percent per year. The remaining 61 percent of the eroded soil is displaced from one place to another.

and in the second year, soil erosion reaches 180 tons/hectare. Due to faulty cultivation methods on hill slopes, an average of 80 tons of soil is removed annually. Scientists at the Central Soil & Water Conservation and Training Institute in Dehradun have estimated that approximately 6000 million tons of soil are eroded annually. And 29 percent of that permanently flows into the sea, 10 percent accumulates in reservoirs, consequently reducing their storage capacity by 1 to 2 percent per year. The remaining 61 percent of the eroded soil is displaced from one place to another.

(b) Wind Erosion: Wind erosion is a serious problem in the states of Rajasthan, Haryana, Punjab, and Gujarat. Arid soil is also prevalent in dry regions and in the cold desert regions of

Leh in intensely arid India. It covers approximately 13.5 million hectares. Excessive grazing, removal of natural vegetation, and extending agriculture to these dry regions are the main human-induced factors leading to rapid wind erosion.

(c) Salt-Affected Soils: Before the introduction of irrigation, groundwater levels were many meters deep, but due to the introduction of irrigation, groundwater levels have risen. When groundwater reaches within 2 meters of the surface, it contributes significantly to evaporation from the soil surface and causes soil salinization. Such a situation has arisen in the main canal areas of Punjab, Haryana, and Uttar Pradesh. Groundwater is also saline in some irrigated areas. It covers approximately 8.5 million hectares, which was estimated by the Central Soil Salinity Research Institute, Karnal, in 1996, and is spread across Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Punjab, Maharashtra, Karnataka, and other states.

(d) Waterlogging, Low-Lying Lands, Shifting Cultivation and Others: Areas affected by waterlogging, low-lying lands, and shifting cultivation are 6.0 million hectares, 4.0 million hectares, and 3.0 million hectares respectively. Industrial waste has turned good agricultural land into barren land.

2.2.7 Summary

Land, along with other material outputs, has unique characteristics. Every land distribution program has a specific characteristic (i.e., it is considered a stable asset), and it is located in a specific place.

It is limited. Furthermore, land distribution programs have spatial impacts when multiple parcels of land are purchased, sold, exchanged, or transferred in a specific area. Therefore, spatial land-use transmissions are related to various factors, including several cooperative factors that have comparable overall titles and diverse impacts.

Fiber, fuel for the growing human population, fodder for animals, and industrial raw materials for agricultural-based industries are in increasing demand. Efficient management of natural resources like soil and water plays a key role in crop production. We have achieved food security, but it is not stable. The primary issues of food security, poverty, equity, and resource sustainability concern us all. We have seen that about 57% of the land is affected by soil erosion, declining groundwater resources, small landholdings, and inefficient cropping systems. Crop diversification and agricultural system policy are crucial to improving agricultural income and stability.

2.2.8 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Write a brief note on the mutual effects of land distribution and economic development?
2. Write an easy essay on land distribution and use.

3. Explain the changes in land use patterns and land distribution according to problems.

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AGRICULTURAL LEGISLATION

2.3.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to explain agricultural law, agricultural land ceiling law, tenant protection law, 1955, land laws, and reforms.

Structure of the Lesson

2.3.0 Objective of the Lesson

2.3.1 Introduction

2.3.2 Agricultural Legislation

2.3.3 Agricultural Land Ceiling Act

2.3.4 Tenant Protection Act, 1955

2.3.5 Land Laws and Reforms

2.3.6 Fulfilling Constitutional/Legal Obligations

2.3.7 Legislation on Rehabilitation and Resettlement

2.3.8 Monitoring of Land Reform Activities

2.3.9 Gender and Land Rights:

2.3.10 Summary

2.3.11 Self-Assessment Questions

2.3.1 Introduction:

In 1960, the Andhra Pradesh government introduced a new bill. This provides a unified rent law for the entire Andhra Pradesh. The bill lapsed in 1961 due to the dissolution of the assembly during the general elections, and a fresh bill was introduced in 1962, which was reported by the Joint Select Committee of the State Legislature in 1964. Its provisions were flawed in many respects. The Regional Committee for the Telangana region did not agree with this bill and suggested extending the Hyderabad Act to the Andhra region as well; and if that was not possible, there should be separate laws for the two regions. This matter is under consideration of the state government.

The status of implementation of land reforms was examined in the report submitted by Shri Amir Raza, Joint Secretary, Planning Commission in February 1965 (Video Annexure I). There are many gaps in the Hyderabad Act:

2.3.2 Agricultural Legislation

The term social legislation is very comprehensive. It refers to the law, which serves the social and economic objectives of the country and adequately deals with current social problems. Therefore, social law includes laws affecting social customs such as infanticide, child marriage, etc., law for labor welfare, law for the welfare of weaker sections and marginalized sections, reduction of debt burden, consolidation of holdings, ceiling of land, urban planning, slum regularization, clearance, control of infectious diseases, control of price competition, prohibition of begging, etc. The law was specifically passed to promote the welfare of people from weaker sections - women, children, youth, marginalized classes, and workers - from social injustice and all forms of exploitation. The Indian government instructed its states to abolish intermediary tenures, regulate rent and tenancy rights, confer ownership rights on tenants, impose ceilings on holdings, distribute surplus land to the rural poor, and facilitate the consolidation of holdings.

2.3.3 Agricultural Land Ceiling Act

The Land Ceiling Act, in its structure and process, follows a common pattern. The first law on land ceiling in Tamil Nadu was the Tamil Nadu Land Reforms (Ceiling on Land) Act, 1961 (referred to as the Principal Act).

The objective of equitable land distribution to the landless is to provide surplus land available for distribution to the landless poor by determining a ceiling on agricultural land. The ceiling limit for a family of five members was fixed at 30 standard acres. For every additional member in a family of more than five members, an additional area of five standard acres is allowed, in addition to the 30 standard acres ceiling area, subject to a total ceiling of 60 standard acres. Any female member of the family holding lands in her own name on the date of commencement of the Act is entitled to hold streedhan property up to a ceiling of 10 standard acres.

Legislative measures had loopholes, which were exploited by large land interests to circumvent the laws. Anticipating the ceiling, large landowners divided their holdings and fictitiously transferred them to other persons on a very large scale through benami transfers.

Meanwhile, by the Tamil Nadu Land Reforms (Reduction of Ceiling on Land) Act, 1970, the maximum for a family with not more than 5 members was reduced to 15 standard acres. For lands cultivated with sugarcane, the exemption granted under the Principal Act, Act 41/71, withdrew grazing lands, and the total ceiling limit of 60 standard acres was reduced to 40 standard acres under the Act. The area declared as surplus up to March 31, 2005, was 2,05,357 acres. The area under court proceedings was 8,469 acres; therefore, the net area available for

distribution was 1,96,888 acres. The area where distribution was completed up to March 31, 2005, was 1,96,654 acres.

2.3.4 Tenant Protection Act, 1955

The Tamil Nadu Cultivating Tenants Protection Act, 1955, provides protection to tenants from unfair eviction. According to the Act, a cultivating tenant shall not be evicted from his land by the landowner or, in his view, except as otherwise provided.

The Tamil Nadu Cultivating Tenants (Payment of Fair Rent) Act, 1956, stipulates that every cultivating tenant shall be liable to pay to the landowner, and every landowner shall be entitled to recover from the cultivating tenant, fair rent as stipulated under this Act. Fair rent shall be:

- a) In the case of wet land, 40% of the normal gross produce or its value in money;
- b) In the case of wet land, if irrigation is supplemented by lifting water, 35% of the normal gross produce or its value in money;
- c) In the case of any other class of land, 33 1/3% of the normal gross produce or its value in money;
- d) By the 1980 Amendment Act, the fair rent is being reduced to 25% of the normal gross produce or its value in money.

The Tamil Nadu Agricultural Lands (Record of Tenancy Rights) Act, 1969, provides for the preparation and maintenance of complete and reliable records relating to tenancy rights. It serves as documentation on tenancy rights and goes a long way in ending the evils associated with oral leases.

Lease agreements are registered under the Tamil Nadu Agricultural Lands (Record of Tenancy Rights) Act. The biggest obstacle to consolidation is tradition and farmers' unwillingness to participate, even though clear benefits appear to all concerned. It is very difficult to convince a farmer to exchange land that has been cultivated for years or has been in the family for generations.

National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, 2005

The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act aims to enhance livelihood security in rural areas of the country by providing at least 100 days of guaranteed wage employment in every financial year to every household whose adult members volunteer to do unskilled manual work. And for matters connected therewith or incidental thereto.

Minimum Wages Act, 1948

The concept of minimum wages was formulated by the ILO in 1928. It referred to the wages of workers in rural areas where the wage level was significantly low and labor was exploited, poorly organized, and had low effective bargaining power. Minimum wage, in relation to any area, is the minimum wage fixed by the state government under Section 3.

National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA)

The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act is to provide a legal guarantee of 100 days of wage employment in a financial year to every rural household whose adult members volunteer to do unskilled manual work. The central government will notify the minimum wage rate until he/she gets the minimum wage rate for agricultural laborers in the state, which in no case shall be less than Rs. 60 per day. NREGA came into force from February 2, 2006.

All these legislative measures have gone a long way in raising awareness among the rural weaker sections and in eliminating social injustice and inequality.

2.3.5 Land Laws and Reforms

Land, land tenures, landholdings, consolidation, etc., fall under the exclusive legislative and administrative jurisdiction of the states as provided in Entry No. 18 of List II (State List) in the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution. However, the central government has been playing an advisory and coordinating role in the field of land reforms since the First Five Year Plan. Agricultural reforms have been a major issue for rural reconstruction, serving as a tool to provide social justice to genuine farmers and landless rural poor, thereby creating a stable foundation for the overall growth of the industrial and tertiary sectors of our economy. Providing more land to the landless rural poor is considered an important element in poverty eradication. The main objective of land reforms is to reorganize agricultural relations to achieve an egalitarian social status, eliminate exploitation in land relations, realize the ancient goal of land to the tiller, expand land for the rural poor, increase agricultural productivity, and instill the element of equality in local institutions. The Department of Land Resources in the Union Ministry of Rural Development has played a key role in building national consensus in initiating effective land reforms such as the abolition of the zamindari system and all intermediaries, the introduction of family ceilings in the mid-fifties, the reduction of ceiling limits, the consolidation of landholdings, and monitoring the progress of distribution of ceiling surplus lands as part of the central government's 20-point program.

The Department initiated 13 constitutional amendments to include 277 land laws in the Ninth Schedule of the Constitution. The 78th amendment to the Constitution to include 27 land laws in that Schedule was the last such amendment.

The Land Reforms Division in the Department of Land Resources also functions as the nodal division of the Ministry of Rural Development for the administration of the Land Acquisition Act, 1894. This includes issues covered under Entry Number 42 in the Concurrent List of the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution. Therefore, the division's activities can be broadly divided into 3 main groups: fulfilling constitutional obligations, monitoring land reform related programs, and implementing centrally sponsored schemes.

Indian agriculture has made remarkable progress since independence. A country that repeatedly faced food shortages and relied on food imports is now not only self-sufficient but also a net exporter. Agriculture has slowly transformed from subsistence to semi-commercial and traditional systems have been replaced by technology-driven improved production systems. In 1952, during the First Five Year Plan, food grain production was about 50 million tons and the population was about 360 million. In 2007-08, total food grain production exceeded 230.8 million tons and the population was 1,138 million. The average growth rate of food production has been much higher than the population growth rate. This transformation in Indian agriculture has been made possible by technology development, adoption, policies, and the hard work of farmers, supported by legislative measures including codified laws for observation in agricultural and allied activities. Although agricultural laws in the country are a legacy of the British, real efforts to change the economic status of farmers and the agricultural situation through statutory measures began only after 1947. Democratic governments at the state and central levels have moved forward on a large scale to remove the most unhealthy obstacles to the progress of the agricultural sector. As Five Year Plans became an integral part of the development process, agricultural laws also became part of a deliberate national effort to change the socio-economic status of society.

In the early period, laws can be broadly classified into four groups: abolition of intermediaries, tenancy reforms, ceiling on landholdings, and laws related to Gramdan and Bhoodan. The abolition of zamindari and similar measures helped actual cultivators to coordinate directly with the state. Similarly, the main reason for increased productivity is reforms in rent laws in many states. Land reform measures in the country followed the principle of giving ownership to tenants, although laws vary from state to state. Similarly, to achieve social justice and redistribution of agricultural land, laws have been passed in almost all states to limit the size of agricultural holdings. Consequently, more than 1 million hectares of agricultural land have been declared surplus with the government for distribution to the most needy. To facilitate the implementation of these laws, and to protect them from being challenged in courts through necessary amendments, most of them have been included in the Ninth Schedule of the Indian Constitution. In addition to these, the Bhoodan movement was launched by Acharya Vinoba Bhave in the early fifties to collect land donations for distribution among landless people, supported by legislative approval and approval by states through a series of laws and regulations.

Land reform measures attempt to rationalize the agricultural structure and the land-man relationship. A dynamic approach is needed for the reorganization of agricultural activities for

agricultural progress. Many legislative measures have been taken to facilitate land use and management. The consolidation of land-holdings is perhaps one of the major steps in this direction.

To overcome the problem of fragmented and dispersed holdings, the voluntary approach was slowly replaced by legislative measures: Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1948; Punjab Holdings (Consolidation and Holding) Act, 1953; The UP Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1953; Rajasthan Holdings (Consolidation and Prevention of Fragmentation) Act, 1954; MP Land Revenue Code, 1959; Jammu and Kashmir Consolidation Holdings Act, 1960, etc. Similar laws were enacted in Bihar (1966), Assam (1960), Andhra Pradesh (1956), Himachal Pradesh (1953), and other states during 1974-75. Most of the consolidation work has been done in North Indian states and is still in progress in other states.

2.3.6 Fulfilling Constitutional/Legal Obligations

Administration of Land Acquisition Act, 1894

The Ministry of Rural Development, which is the nodal ministry, processes proposals for amendment of various provisions of the said Act from time to time. The above-mentioned Act was last amended in 1984. The Land Acquisition (Amendment) Bill, 2007, was passed in the Lok Sabha. It was passed in 2009 with the objective of protecting the interests of poor farmers whose land was acquired for setting up industries.

Examination of Central and State Laws on Property Acquisition and Possession

All state legislative proposals (in the case of bills) covering acquisition and seeking of property or any other state legislation affecting land acquisition and possession for obtaining the President's assent as per Article 200 (Article 200) or as per the proviso to Article 213 (1) of the Constitution are examined by the Land Reforms Division. As per Clause (2) of Article 254 of the Constitution, the Division also examines all proposals from state governments for amendments to the Land Acquisition Act, 1894, for consent.

Examination of Other Land Laws

This Ministry is also the nodal ministry for the implementation of land reform measures. All proposals for the introduction of land reform laws or amendments initiated by states/union territories are sent to the Land Reforms Division to ensure that they are in conformity with the national land reform policy. This Division processes all land laws for their inclusion in the Ninth Schedule of the Constitution to protect them from being challenged in any court on the ground of violation of fundamental rights (with special reference to Articles 31A and 31C) through constitutional amendment. During the imposition of President's rule in any state, when Parliament is empowered by the President under Article 357(1) to make ordinances or laws, the Ministry of Rural Development is responsible for doing so in Parliament. Additionally, this

Division also provides appropriate advice to any central ministry proposing to enact legislation on land acquisition/requisition. Thus, central and state laws on this subject are examined in the Division.

2.3.7 Legislation on Rehabilitation and Resettlement

The Land Reforms Division is also acting as the nodal agency for formulating a policy/legislation on the rehabilitation and resettlement of project-affected persons/families. We now have the Rehabilitation and Resettlement Bill, 2007, and the revised National Policy of 2007. This bill ensures rehabilitation before land acquisition for farmers and tribals and allows states to acquire 30% of land for private developers only after the developers acquire 70% directly from farmers.

Conferment of Ownership Rights on Tenants: Legislative measures have been taken in many states to provide ownership rights to tenants, protect their rights from intentional eviction, and allow cultivating tenants to acquire ownership rights on payment of compensation. Some states have acquired ownership of land from landowners belonging to certain categories and transferred it to tenants. Sub-leases are generally prohibited nationwide except in some cases, i.e., widows, members of armed forces, minors, unmarried women, persons suffering from disabilities, etc. So far, 125.86 lakh tenants have acquired their rights over an area of 167.14 lakh acres.

Distribution of Surplus Lands: From the beginning till March 2006, the total land declared as surplus across the country was 6.838 million acres, out of which about 5.980 million acres were taken possession of and 4.940 million acres were distributed to 5.350 million beneficiaries. Among these, 39% belonged to Scheduled Castes and 16% to Scheduled Tribes.

2.3.8 Monitoring of Land Reform Activities

To play an effective coordinating and advisory role, the Land Reforms Division periodically organizes meetings of Chief Ministers and Revenue Ministers, monitoring the conferment of ownership rights on tenants, restoration and prevention of alienation of tribal land, consolidation of holdings, distribution of government wasteland, ceiling surplus land, Bhoodan land, etc.

Distribution of Government Wasteland: Distribution of government wasteland is one of the key strategies of land reforms in the country. It is the policy approved by the central government to distribute wasteland available with state governments to eligible rural poor. The standards governing the distribution of ceiling surplus land also apply to the distribution of wasteland. So far, 14.747 million acres of government wasteland have been distributed to landless rural poor.

Consolidation of Holdings: The consolidation of fragmented agricultural landholdings is an integral part of land reform policy. Successive Five Year Plans have accordingly emphasized

the consolidation of fragmented landholdings for planned development of villages and increasing agricultural production. Consequently, many states have enacted laws and undertaken the work of consolidation of landholdings. Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, and Punjab have achieved commendable success. In Uttar Pradesh, even now, consolidation of landholdings is under implementation in about 9,000–10,000 villages. In other states, work continued for some time but then lost momentum. So far, an area of 163.347 million acres has been consolidated across the country. A national-level committee was constituted under the chairmanship of the Secretary (Rural Development) to assess the progress of consolidation of landholdings and to examine matters related to updating survey data/records of rights and maps by improving technology. The committee formulates an action plan for consolidation of holdings and identifies necessary programs on consolidation of landholdings. Based on the committee's recommendations, the Administrative Staff College of India (ASCI) in Hyderabad was assigned a study to document the efforts made on land consolidation and computerization of land records and consolidation in various states. ASCI conducted such a study in 10 states. The final report was received from ASCI, which recommended that there is no need for a centrally sponsored scheme on consolidation of landholdings. The Ministry accepted these recommendations.

Restoration and Prevention of Alienation of Tribal Lands: Article 46 of the Constitution directs the states to promote the interests of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation. State governments have adopted policies to prevent alienation of tribal land to non-tribals and to restore alienated tribal lands. States with a large tribal population have enacted laws for this purpose. According to the reports received from various states, so far 3.75 lakh cases of tribal land alienation have been registered, covering 0.855 million acres of land, out of which 1.62 lakh cases covering 0.447 million acres have been disposed of in favor of tribals. 1.54 lakh cases related to 0.363 million acres have been disposed of by courts for various reasons. Although the measures taken by various states have shown good results in preventing alienation of tribal land and in restoration of alienated tribal lands, the work is yet to be completed. With the objective of formulating a model law on prevention of tribal land alienation and restoration of alienated tribal lands, the Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India, constituted an expert group under the chairmanship of former Secretary Shri B.N. Yugandhar to make recommendations.

2.3.9 Gender and Land Rights:

Many states have improved land and land ownership for women. Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, and Andhra Pradesh have amended the 1956 Hindu Succession Act to address issues related to women's rights in land inheritance. Some states like Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh have decided to address issues related to women's rights in land-related properties in accordance with appropriate personal laws. However, some states like Haryana, Jammu and Kashmir, Delhi, and Punjab have not yet taken appropriate measures.

2.3.10 Summary

To further support organized efforts, some states have formulated legislative measures to facilitate the establishment of cooperative joint-farming societies on a voluntary basis. In some states, surplus land has been allotted to landless laborers' cooperative societies. Although the objective is good, the internal performance of cooperative societies has not been very successful. This has undergone many changes in recent times, and we can see land lease companies coming forward in the future. This study covers agricultural laws under the central sector - land laws and reforms; laws and reforms of input management [fertilizers, seeds, pesticides, and insecticides, genetically modified organisms (GMOs), agricultural biotechnology, and other input-related laws]; labor laws in agriculture; agricultural marketing laws; laws in the animal husbandry sector; agricultural credit and finance laws, cooperative sector law, and panchayats.

2.3.11 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Write a brief note on agricultural laws and agricultural land ceiling law.
2. Write an easy essay on the Tenant Protection Act, 1955, and land laws and reforms.
3. Explain fulfilling constitutional/legal obligations, law on rehabilitation and resettlement, and monitoring of land reform activities.

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LAND REFORMS

2.4.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to explain recent experiences with land reforms, land reform activities in rural society, land reforms after independence, the Green Revolution, and the benefits of the Green Revolution.

Structure of the Lesson

2.4.0 Objective of the Lesson

2.4.1 Introduction

2.4.2 Recent Experience with Land Reforms

2.4.3 Land Reform Activities in Rural Society

2.4.4 Land Reforms after Independence

2.4.5 Green Revolution

2.4.6 Benefits of Green Revolution

2.4.7 Land Reforms

2.4.8 Summary

2.4.9 Self-Assessment Questions

2.4.1 Introduction

The National Development Council reviewed the progress made in the implementation of land reforms in various states and noted that due to legal and other factors, in some states, the law was not fully implemented. The National Development Council emphasized that it is very necessary to implement land reform activities quickly to increase agricultural production and strengthen the rural economy. It also called upon state governments to complete the implementation of land reform activities by the end of the Third Plan. The Council also constituted a committee with the Home Minister, Gulzarilal Nanda as Chairman, and the Minister of Food and Agriculture, a member of the Planning Commission, and five Chief Ministers as members, to review the progress of land reforms in various states and to propose measures to strengthen implementation.

2.4.2 Recent Experience with Land Reforms

The experience of land reforms in the past indicates the paramount importance of political will in achieving effective change. Land ownership provides power to many groups in developing countries. Land ownership is a symbol and source of political power, especially for landowners who control land. An effective land reform program inevitably destroys or limits the power of many individuals. Therefore, it is not surprising that land reforms are often a major issue in political discussions, and these discussions often involve the redistribution of wealth along with political power. Prestigious land reform programs are implemented very rarely unless there are changes in political will and power. Many countries have legalized land reforms, but only a few have implemented them. And in these contexts, reforms were implemented only when there was a change in government in favorable situations such as in the Republic of China, Japan, Korea, and Mexico.

The second important factor in making reforms effective is the institutional arrangement for exerting pressure to implement and sustain reforms once they are legalized. For example, in Japan, Taiwan, and Venezuela, appropriate institutions were established to ensure that land was actually transferred. In other countries, the lack of organized pressure from beneficiaries, coupled with the power of landowners and officials, largely thwarted favorable reform efforts. The experience of land reforms in Asia and Latin America suggests that successful land reforms may have some kind of rural organization, especially one with a static political will.

The dimensions of land reform are related to the interdependent aspects of land productivity and land use equality. It is often pursued as an end in itself, but in the context of development, it is generally seen as part of agricultural reforms or rural development programs. Land reform is distinct from political, administrative, economic, or monetary reforms, as it is generally related to one sector and involves changes in control - it also provides primary factors that many people have, in addition to being stable in supplies. Developing countries are dependent on their livelihoods.

Land reforms involve changes in some or all of the following at various levels:

1. Redistribution of government or private land to change land distribution and the size of holdings. Generally, it involves an increase in the number of small- or medium-sized plots and a decrease in the number of large holdings. Alternatively, all land can be nationalized and regrouped into holdings under government ownership, which can be large.
2. Consolidation of individual holdings, thereby reorganizing the physical pattern of control. Fragmented holdings can be regrouped into contiguous land parcels. It can be done with or without changing the distribution of land ownership in terms of area or value belonging to each individual.

3. Changes in land ownership and tenancy rights with or without physical redistribution of land. Redistributed land can be allotted to new owners or to farmers who work on the land. Alternatively, land need not be redistributed, but tenants or laborers can be made owners of the land they work on. In that context, the result is generally a redistribution of income from former landowners to new owners. New owners can cultivate cooperatively or individually.
4. Changes in tenancy conditions without changing ownership or redistributing land. The rights of those who work on the land are protected by law without changes in ownership. Changes in tenancy conditions include providing security of tenancy, introducing equal crop-sharing arrangements, cooperative land management, and so on. These changes also include changing land from custom to legal rights.

2.4.3 Land Reform Activities in Rural Society

Land reforms have been recognized and accepted as a major instrument for economic and social change. After independence, land reform measures were introduced in the country for the achievement of agricultural productivity and social justice.

It has been argued that land reforms have become a topic of discussion in debates about significant political and development issues. They are considered necessary to modernize agriculture. The Indian government instructed its states to abolish intermediary tenures, regulate rent and tenancy rights, confer ownership rights on tenants, impose ceilings on holdings, distribute surplus land to the rural poor, and facilitate the consolidation of holdings. State governments approved a large number of laws in a short period.

However, many laws had loopholes, which allowed large landowners to redistribute land among relatives, evict their tenants, and use other means to escape the laws.

2.4.4 Land Reforms after Independence

According to official reports immediately after independence, about 91% of the cultivators' credit needs were met through informal credit, a large portion of which came from moneylenders.

Successive Five Year Plans have made rural development one of the main objectives. Under the Community Development Program launched in the early 1950s, a network of primary services and development services was established in villages.

Measures taken to protect farmers:

- a) Abolition of intermediaries
- b) Abolition of Zamindari system

- c) Tenancy reforms, including regulation of rent, security of tenancy, and conferment of ownership rights on tenants.
- d) Ceiling on agricultural holdings
- e) Consolidation of holdings
- f) Cooperative farming
- g) Bhoodan movement and distribution of surplus land, and
- h) Compilation and preparation of land records.

The Indian state planned to establish a network of cooperative credit societies. With the imposition of social control and subsequent nationalization, commercial banks were asked to provide loans to the agricultural sector on a priority basis.

However, despite the inherent bias of institutional credit against the rural poor, its availability played a key role in the success of the Green Revolution and certainly helped to push traditional moneylenders aside in the rural credit structure.

2.4.5 Green Revolution

The most severe food shortage in the world occurred in British India in 1943. It was called the Bengal Famine, and four million people died of starvation in eastern India (including present-day Bangladesh) in that year alone. The initial theory put forward to 'explain' the famine was that there was a severe shortage of food production in that region.

However, Indian economist Amartya Sen (Nobel laureate in Economics, 1998) argued that although food shortage was a cause, a more powerful factor related to the Second World War was that the British rulers gave less priority to food.

However, when the British left India, the country was still haunted by the memory of the Bengal Famine. Therefore, it is natural that food security became a major issue on the agenda of independent India. This understanding led to the Green Revolution in India.

However, the term "Green Revolution" was coined from 1967 to 1978. Between 1947 and 1967, efforts to achieve food self-sufficiency were not entirely successful. Until 1967, efforts were mostly focused on expanding agricultural areas. However, starvation deaths were still reported in newspapers. This measure came in the form of the Green Revolution.

The term "Green Revolution" is a general term referring to successful agricultural experiments in many Third World countries. It is not specific to India. However, it was most successful in India.

The Green Revolution method has three primary elements:

1. Continuous expansion of agricultural areas.

As mentioned above, the area under cultivation has been increasing since 1947. However, it is not sufficient to meet the growing demand. Other methods are needed. However, the expansion of cultivated land has also continued. The Green Revolution continued with this quantitative expansion of agricultural land.

2. Cultivating two crops on existing agricultural land.

The main feature of the Green Revolution is double-cropping. It was decided to grow two crops a year instead of one. There should be two "seasons" a year. One is natural seasons and the other is artificial 'seasons.'

Artificial seasons came in the form of massive irrigation facilities. Canals, which were built to control the natural flow of water in large quantities, were already there. They adopted general irrigation technology.

3. Using seeds with superior genetics.

This is the scientific aspect of the Green Revolution. The Andaman Council for Agricultural Research developed high-yielding varieties (HYV) of seeds, mainly wheat and rice, and also developed millet and maize.

2.4.6 Benefits of Green Revolution

Statistical Results of the Green Revolution

As a result of the Green Revolution, food grain production reached 131 million tons in 1978-79. This established India as one of the largest agricultural producers in the world. No other country that attempted the Green Revolution achieved such success. At that time, India also became a food grain exporter.

Between 1947 and 1979, the Green Revolution, while appearing to distribute its goods, saw the yield per acre of agricultural land increase by over 30%.

Economic Results of the Green Revolution

High-yielding varieties of crops require more water, more fertilizers, more pesticides, herbicides, and some other chemicals. This led to the development of the chemical industry. Such industrial development created new employment opportunities and contributed to the country's economic system.

Increased irrigation created a need for new facilities to utilize stored water. Stored water was used for hydroelectric power generation. This increased industrial development, created employment opportunities, and improved the quality of life of people in villages.

Sociological Results of the Green Revolution

The Green Revolution created abundant employment opportunities not only for agricultural laborers but also for industrial laborers through the creation of ancillary facilities like factories and hydroelectric centers.

Political Results of the Green Revolution

India transformed from a country suffering from starvation to a food-exporting country. This gained India respect in other countries, especially in Third World countries.

Limitations of the Green Revolution

Even today, India's agricultural production sometimes falls short of demand. The Green Revolution, however attractive, did not fully and permanently make India self-sufficient in food. In 1979 and 1987, India faced severe famine conditions due to poor seasons; this raised questions about whether the Green Revolution was truly a long-term success.

However, in today's globalized economic context, with the world political environment becoming more dangerous due to hidden inflation, 100% self-sufficiency is no longer considered a primary goal.

India failed to extend high-yielding varieties of seeds to all crops or all regions. In terms of crops, it was largely limited to food grains, not all types of agricultural produce. The Green Revolution is not considered 100% successful.

2.4.7 Land Reforms

In agricultural-based economic systems, the structure of land ownership is crucial for the well-being of the people. The government tried to change the land ownership system, taking some measures such as the abolition of intermediaries, the abolition of Zamindari, ceiling laws, providing security to tenants, consolidation of landholdings, and prohibition of tenancy. However, an effective land reform program requires a pre-existing land record system. In 1987-88, a centrally sponsored scheme for strengthening revenue administration and land records (SRA & ULR) was introduced in Orissa and Bihar.

2.4.8 Summary

Although these measures were successful in eradicating poverty, this model has many fundamental flaws. Under this model, resources are transferred from the urban economic system to the rural economic system for short-term political objectives. It affects both regions; the rural economic system does not allow its own development, and it creates an obstacle to development and investment in the urban economic system.

In an effective approach, the government, panchayats, and key village individuals, voluntary organizations, and private companies should be involved. This would not only help reduce this imbalance but also have a multiplier effect on the entire economic system. It is a very complex and meeting-intensive process, but the effort for landholdings is valuable, and new measures such as prohibiting tenancy have been taken. However, an effective land reform program requires a pre-existing land record system. In 1987-88, a centrally sponsored scheme for strengthening revenue administration and land records (SRA & ULR) was introduced in Orissa and Bihar.

2.4.9 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Write a brief note on land reforms in rural society and recent experiences with land reform activities.
2. Write an easy essay on land reforms after independence and the Green Revolution.
3. Explain the benefits of the Green Revolution.

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RURAL POVERTY AND LANDLESS LABORERS

3.2.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to explain poverty, causes of poverty, rural poverty, measures to eradicate rural poverty, and classification of agricultural labor.

and landless laborers.

Structure of the Lesson

3.2.0 Objective of the Lesson

3.2.1 Introduction

3.1.2 Poverty

3.1.3 Causes of Poverty

3.1.4 Causes of Rural Poverty

3.1.5 Measures to Eradicate Rural Poverty

3.1.6 Landlessness

3.1.7 Classification of Agricultural Labor

3.1.8 Landless Laborers

3.1.9 Summary

3.1.10 Self-Assessment Questions

3.1.1 Introduction

In India, poverty is considered a complete disgrace, where the main sections of society are provided with a minimum livelihood to take adequate calories of essential clothing, grains, pulses, milk, and vegetables. All parameters expressed in terms of money provide minimum complexity.

Poverty has multiple dimensions in terms of role, scope, and content. Poverty has an economic aspect, a social aspect, and a psychological aspect. The economic aspect of poverty includes unemployment, underemployment, financial shortage to meet family basic needs, and child labor.

The social aspect of poverty is manifested in high infant mortality, violent behavior, high teenage pregnancy and single parenthood, high drug abuse, and a large number of unemployed men and women. The psychological aspect of poverty is associated with low self-esteem, lack of knowledge, helplessness, and dependence.

Poverty is not just low income, low consumption, and lack of assets, but above all, alienation, exclusion, and powerlessness. Poverty leads to low economic growth. If the poor do not get proper nutrition, their health will be poor. This reduces labor productivity and affects economic growth. In Indian rural areas, many people living in poverty belong to oppressed castes. Due to lack of proper housing facilities, these Scheduled Castes and Tribes experience high birth rates associated with high mortality rates. Many poor people are in areas with a shortage of agricultural land, low agricultural productivity, and where drought, floods, and environmental degradation are common. Indian rural areas are often isolated in every aspect, with very few opportunities for non-agricultural production, and the demand for labor is highly seasonal. Often the poor live in areas that are more vulnerable to natural resources, but there is no priority for social services and infrastructure. In a country like India, the entire development system depends on agricultural development.

Living in poverty is sad, but it is a true tragedy to humiliate society (or cause suffering) for those who are poor or not poor. The specification of the 'poverty line' can make some part of the employment 'poor,' whose consumption standards are below the norms or whose income is below that line. The concept of poverty problem: i) Only the poor? ii) Only the non-poor? or iii) Both the poor and the non-poor? It seems a bit strange to think that the concept of poverty is related only to the non-poor.

Eradicating poverty and improving people's living standards have been the twin objectives of our economic policy since independence. It is a known fact that the majority of the Indian population has been subjected to very low living standards for the past few decades.

Poverty in India is a deep problem. Its bad and terrible consequences are manifested in many forms such as death, malnutrition, disease, etc. The war against poverty in India is ongoing continuously, but poverty is still rooted. It is defined in terms of monetary factors that can measure the extent of poverty. Subsequently, poverty is defined in terms of the minimum calories a person needs to consume to be at a subsistence level. In other words, although there is a slight difference between rural and urban individuals, the minimum calorie needs a person consumes determine the poverty line.

3.1.2 Poverty

Poverty is a situation where an individual is unable to maintain a living standard sufficient to provide for their physical and mental well-being and to function productively according to societal standards for themselves and their dependents due to insufficient income or

lack of wealth. It is not enough to have sufficient supply of goods to protect those who are dependent on one's strength.

3.1.3 Causes of Poverty

- a) Physical and mental defects.
- b) Illness and accidents
- c) Insecurity.
- d) Unemployment.
- e) Immorality.
- f) Alcohol addiction.
- g) Gambling.
- h) More children.
- i) Old age
- j) Death of an earning member.
- k) Natural calamities.
- l) Unfavorable environment and atmosphere.
- m) Lack or deficiency of natural resources.
- n) Droughts and floods.
- o) Wrong education.
- p) Old customs and traditions.
- q) War.
- r) Economic recession.
- s) Unequal distribution and inefficient economic policies.

3.1.4 Causes of Rural Poverty

1. Livelihood for more people in rural areas

Indian agriculture is a livelihood for many. The majority of people in India are directly or indirectly dependent on agriculture.

2. Gambling on seasons

Agriculture depends on seasons. If the seasons are favorable, crops will be good, and rural people will be able to live happily, but if the season fails, they will face difficulties in livelihood.

3. Traditional and flawed methods of agriculture

In India, agriculture is still done in a traditional way. These traditional methods are not scientific and do not help in increasing production. Due to traditional methods, agriculture suffers economically and leads to poverty.

4. Vast wasteland

In India, wasteland is in a very large area, which is not used for cultivation or work. Good efforts were made to utilize this wasteland during the Five Year Plans, but it was not 100% successful.

5. Uneconomic and fragmented holdings

Agricultural fields and plots are not economic. They are very small and fragmented. These two disadvantages completely change agricultural production and consequently lead to poverty.

6. Lack of investment

A major flaw in the agricultural economic system is the lack of investment. In India, with limited resources, farmers are unable to raise capital when needed and when necessary because agriculture is not profitable.

7. Population explosion

Due to high population, many people are dependent on land. Due to this fact, the average income of farmers is very low and leads to poverty.

8. Backwardness of agriculture

The backwardness of agriculture is due to the following reasons:

- a) Lack of good and scientific fertilizers.
- b) Lack of good and useful seeds.
- c) Poor health of farmers.
- d) Lack of irrigation facilities.
- e) Traditionalism and debt burden of farmers.
- f) Natural calamities such as drought, excessive rainfall, floods, etc.

- g) Poor health of animals assisting in agriculture.
- h) Land revenue system is flawed.
- i) Lack of facilities to market agricultural produce.
- j) Flawed social system.

3.1.5 Measures to Eradicate Rural Poverty

1. Development of agriculture and allied activities.
2. Development of small and cottage industries in rural areas.
3. Area planning with development of large-scale and small-scale industries in rural areas.
4. Controlling population growth.
5. Encouraging the development of cooperative movement.
6. Making capital available to farmers and improving agricultural credit.
7. Bringing wasteland and uncultivable land into agriculture.
8. More encouragement for the movement to produce more food grains.
9. Development of transport and communication in rural areas.
10. Program for social protection.
11. Encouraging intensive agriculture.
12. Providing better marketing facilities for agricultural produce.
13. Rural health programs to improve farmers' health.
14. Research programs to improve agricultural methods.
15. Providing minimum needs.
16. Development of backward classes.
17. Distribution of essential commodities by the government.
18. Starting social education centers and adult education centers in villages.
19. Insurance schemes and other welfare schemes should be distributed among villagers.

In the Fifth Plan in India, poverty is very large and is a problem that cannot be overcome in a single Five Year Plan period. However, efforts have been made to accelerate the process of poverty eradication through proper utilization of human resources, higher growth rate, and equality in consumption. Eradicating poverty in a short period is a challenging task, which the country has achieved well in the long run.

3.1.6 Landlessness

In villages, there is a class of people who earn their livelihood by working on others' fields and lands. This class has no land-related assets.

An agricultural laborer may be landless or may have a small piece of land that is not sufficient for his livelihood.

An agricultural laborer is a person who is engaged in agricultural activities for more than half of the total days he actually works in a year as a laborer.

3.1.7 Classification of Agricultural Labor

1. Attached Workers

Workers who are permanently attached to a person or family and landless laborers. In India, large farmers and landowners have a large number of people attached to their fields. These individuals determine all aspects related to their agriculture. In return, they are guaranteed food and clothing throughout the year.

2. Casual Workers

These laborers are engaged in work only when their services are needed. Generally, their services are needed during sowing or harvesting. They are limited to villages.

Problems of Agricultural Labor in India

- i) Seasonal employment
- ii) Low social status.
- iii) Low living standards
- iv) Low wages
- v) Long working hours and dangerous working conditions.
- vi) Debt burden.
- vii) Lack of organization.

viii) Unpaid work.

ix) Housing problems.

Measures to improve the condition of laborers

a. Improving their education level

b. Providing rehabilitation for various types of disabilities. Namely, social, physical, economic, etc.

c. Agricultural development.

d. Development of cottage industries.

e. Cooperative societies

f. Agricultural labor organization.

g. Improving their working conditions

h. Guaranteed minimum wages.

i. Guaranteed work throughout the year.

j. Creating better living conditions.

Landless agricultural laborers are suffering from starvation. In many parts of our country, laborers are committing suicides due to inability to earn a living. It is the responsibility of society and the government to provide them with wages commensurate with their work. If this does not happen, the condition of the village and the laborers will not improve.

3.1.8 Landless Laborers

For this very basic group, the complexities of the Green Revolution vary depending on the category of workers. The picture also varies from region to region. The general increase in commerce and trade and the growing purchasing power in the country have had a positive impact on rural occupations. Demand for artisans has increased, especially in small towns. Since these skilled workers have only limited supply, rural artisans broke their old work relationships with farmers and practiced these occupations in towns for cash payment. The patron-client relationship was partially maintained without fulfilling the full responsibility of being always in the village. They worked in the village during leisure and off-season days. The economic situation has improved significantly by combining traditional employment relationships with profitable occupations in rural towns. Some of them have endured minor hardships. Not everyone can use technical knowledge - however limited - in their crafts and thereby earn high

incomes. Technical development sometimes made some traditional crafts useless. In such cases, the concerned individuals had to seek production in other occupations.

This change did not happen favorably for such occupations. Instead, available resources became the basis for new occupations. In this way, potters became unemployed as pots and pottery made in factories were cheaper and more attractive than their products. Donkeys, which they used to transport their goods, became the basis for their entry into rural transport.

As for permanent agricultural laborers, they often grew into highly skilled occupations. Due to long-term relationships with the land and the resulting close relationships and trust, these laborers were entrusted with tasks related to new agricultural technology, i.e., they were trained as pump attendants or tractor drivers. These occupations not only brought more responsibility but also better wages.

The impact of technological change on laborers has a complex nature. Firstly, due to the increasing population, their number has not only increased, but also because their paths have been eliminated. The attempt made by some landowners to stop their dependence on these laborers during the crop season by purchasing combine harvesters became a serious threat to this group. The high wages paid for crop work - as already explained - guarantee the existence of casual laborers, which puts a large number of laborers at risk of sinking into poverty and miserable conditions. However, recognizing the danger of this situation, the governments of both states immediately banned the import of combine harvesters.

and are associated with income from dairy farming. Therefore, some improvement in living standards can be ensured. As a result, they have surprisingly high supply prices. Farmers no longer find any laborers. Furthermore, this group has become more mobile and is actively seeking work in other areas as well.

Although the entire group has experienced change well, the difference within the group has become more pronounced. Not everyone can adjust to the changed circumstances. Only those who are economically better off can raise buffaloes. Only those who are still very young and in good health are mobile enough to seek work in other areas as well.

Landowners changing their patron-client work relationships to commercially based relationships was particularly unfavorable to the weaker sections, and there is no need for them to worry about the weaker sections as they did in the past. The living conditions of the weaker sections among ordinary agricultural laborers have clearly deteriorated.

In other words, only a small percentage of rural laborers succeeded in improving their living conditions within the framework of the Green Revolution. There is no major share in that. However, in this context, living conditions often do not deteriorate, because money can adjust to the changed circumstances. However, within the group, there are significant differences due to

age, work, and family status. The living conditions of the weaker sections have deteriorated further;

More opportunities should be created to improve socio-economic conditions and explore the potential of available resources in the village. Agricultural laborers or organizations - political leaders and the government should come forward to create a movement for the welfare of landless agricultural laborers in these areas. This will help them to get fair wages, reasonable working hours, and prevent exploitation.

3.1.10 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Write a brief note on poverty and the causes of rural poverty.
2. Write an easy essay on the stages of eradicating rural poverty and landlessness.
3. Explain the classification of agricultural laborers and landless laborers.

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POVERTY ERADICATION MEASURES - CRITICAL ANALYSIS

3.2.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to explain multi-dimensional poverty, poverty: a conceptual, analytical, and policy overview, the measurement of poverty and policy-related research, poverty eradication programs in India, and the reasons for the failure of poverty eradication programs.

Structure of the Lesson

3.2.0 Objective of the Lesson

3.2.1 Introduction

3.2.2 Concepts and Definitions

3.2.3 Where do we stand?

3.2.4 Multidimensional Poverty

3.2.5 Poverty: A Conceptual, Analytical, and Policy Overview

3.2.6 Measurement of Poverty and Policy-Related Research

3.2.7 Poverty Eradication Programs in India

3.2.8 Reasons for the Failure of Poverty Eradication Programs

3.2.9 Key Challenges

3.2.10 22 ?

3.2.11

3.2.12 Self-Assessment Questions

3.2.1 Introduction

Poverty reduction is one of the most important challenges in the world, and it has been proposed that the private sector plays a crucial role in creating the economic growth, employment, and purchasing options necessary to significantly reduce poverty. Poverty is highly correlated with many negative measurable aspects of living standards, and therefore reducing poverty has a positive impact on the lives of millions of people worldwide. Examining examples from Asia reveals much to learn about poverty reduction, as it is where the largest number of people currently live in poverty and where the greatest success in reducing poverty has been achieved.

Any assessment of poverty eradication strategies must be tied to several conceptual issues. The most obvious is the definition of poverty and the identification of various types of

deprivation that cause social concern. The second relates to the methods of identifying the poor and which social groups are most characterized by poverty. The issue of gender disparities in incomes and ways to increase basic goods, services, and human capabilities becomes relevant here. The third set of issues covers questions that determine poverty generally and for specific groups. These critically affect both the design and implementation of any poverty eradication strategies, which are also clearly influenced by political economy and contextual factors.

Poverty is now widely accepted as a multi-dimensional phenomenon that is only partially captured in data based on estimates of income or consumption expenditure. The most common definition used in developing countries refers to physical consumption and refers to the definition of the poverty line in terms of the expenditures required to meet the nutritional requirement of a specific minimum caloric intake. This definition primarily takes minimum food consumption expenditure as a proxy for income, with the absence of income and other factors linked to poverty, such as productive assets, being evident. Therefore, in addition to hunger and malnutrition, symptoms include higher morbidity and mortality rates, poor access to basic sanitation or minimum health services, homeless or inadequate housing, unhealthy or unsafe environment, lack of education, and social and political exclusion. Indeed, poverty in developing countries is a very comprehensive state that includes not only physical needs but also powerlessness and marginalization. Therefore, estimates based on income poverty underestimate not only the quality of life of the truly poor but also the multifaceted nature of effective poverty in groups of individuals living above the poverty line.

3.2.3 Where do we stand?

There are three conclusions from the India and state-wise analysis. First, the rate of decline of poverty ratios for a reduced cut-off is higher than for PL or increased PL. Second, poverty is concentrated around the poverty line. Third, the population percentage of 50% of PL is very low at the all-India and state levels. There is much debate on how to measure poverty. Setting a minimum level of income or consumption expenditure to define poverty seems to be the most appropriate method. Naturally, there can be significant differences of opinion regarding the minimum prescription. There will be a range of poverty lines. In 2014, our committee developed a method to prescribe minimum consumption expenditure for food and non-food items. The World Bank uses a single poverty line defined in dollar terms and uses the purchasing power parity exchange rate to determine each country's poverty line. This becomes inevitable when comparisons have to be made between countries. However, we must recognize the limitations of such an exercise.

The headcount ratio is a reasonable indicator to measure poverty, although we will have to replace it with some depth measures. We hope that poverty around the poverty line in our country makes the problem of reducing poverty more manageable. On the other hand, if the poor were concentrated at the bottom, the work would have been more difficult. The measure we have chosen to measure poverty is much stricter than that used by the World Bank.

3.2.4 Multidimensional Poverty

Ray and Sinha (2014) criticize the report, stating that the group did not broaden the concept of poverty in terms of multidimensional poverty as stated in the Terms of Reference. They use NSS and NFHS data to highlight multidimensionality. Subramanian (2014) also states that the expert group "missed the opportunity to press the case for a multidimensional assessment of poverty." It can be noted that the report stated the reasons why the group

discussed these issues and did not attempt to estimate multidimensional poverty. In terms of the capabilities approach to the concept and measurement of poverty, the exploration for non-income dimensions of poverty may arise from the perspective that some of these 'capabilities' may not be tied to a privately purchased consumption basket. These are currently where poverty lines are drawn. Therefore, poverty based on income or consumption is different from deprivations based on education or health.

3.2.5 Poverty: A Conceptual, Analytical, and Policy Overview

The number is constantly increasing. Some estimates suggest that 1.3 billion poor people worldwide live on less than \$1 a day. Such a dimension of poverty requires accurate identification, measurement, and monitoring of the phenomenon using the latest sociological concepts, data, methods, and tools, so that relevant policies can be formulated to reduce and ultimately eradicate it. Many activities undertaken by social science programs, especially the Management of Social Transformations Program (MOST), are designed with the above policies.

The concept of poverty 10. The concept of poverty is difficult to define. However, there is a consensus regarding the distinction between 'absolute' and 'relative' poverty. Absolute poverty as a basis for social policy seeks the state's role in providing basic necessities for subsistence. The concept of relative poverty, on the other hand, relates to the overall distribution of household incomes.

A key criticism of both concepts is that they are largely concerned with income and consumption. Insufficient income is not an adequate tool to measure or account for social deprivation. Based on money-metric criteria, these two concepts suggest that while absolute poverty can be eradicated, only relative poverty can be reduced. From this perspective, decile analysis and the Gini coefficient are used to identify the poverty gap. Expanding the scope of poverty intervention, the 1997 UNDP Human Development Report attempted to integrate income, basic needs, and capabilities perspectives in its new model. The concept of social exclusion, which largely emerged in response to an overly narrow definition of poverty in terms of income and consumption, contributed significantly to including multi-faceted indicators of ill-health in the conceptual understanding of poverty.

3.2.6 Measurement of Poverty and Policy-Related Research

A strong foundation of empirical research is essential for a country-specific strategy for poverty eradication. While poverty is felt, in many countries its extent has not been properly studied using a rigorous definition and reliable method to estimate its scope, identify its causes, and analyze its consequences. In the absence of such research support, anti-poverty programs end voluntarily and fail in their well-intentioned mission. Charity and good intentions are no substitute for objective analysis of the problem and its satisfactory solution. A framework for poverty research should examine the phenomenon of poverty at micro and macro levels, so that policy makers have the necessary information available to improve and expand the range of policy responses at various levels. Science methods of data collection and re-examining established theories of poverty and social exclusion to test their cross-cultural validity. For this, it is essential to promote research and studies on poverty in universities and research institutions, especially in developing and less developed countries, so that indigenous expertise develops and policy-related research is conducted by local scholars, thereby eliminating excessive reliance on outside expertise.

It is essential, so that indigenous expertise develops and policy-related research is conducted by local scholars, thereby eliminating excessive reliance on outside expertise.

3.2.7 Poverty Eradication Programs in India

Before critically analyzing the programs, it is important to know some facts about this topic:

1. Questions asked in both Prelims and Mains of the UPSC exam revolve around such poverty eradication programs.
2. Poverty eradication programs are one of the important topics that complement current affairs.
3. Candidates must always be updated with such current government schemes for the upliftment of people below the poverty line.

Some important poverty eradication programs are briefly given below for quick reference.

Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana

Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY) is a restructured, streamlined, and comprehensive version of Jawahar. Rozgar Yojana (JRY). It was launched on April 1, 1999. The main objective of this program is the development of rural areas.

National Pension Scheme (NPS)

The National Pension System (NPS) is a pension scheme sponsored by the government in 2004 for all government employees. This scheme became available to all citizens in 2009. It is a voluntary and long-term retirement scheme.

National Family Benefit Scheme (NFBS)

This scheme was launched in August 1995. This scheme is sponsored by the state government. It was transferred to the state sector scheme after 2002-03. It is under the Community and Rural Department.

Pradhan Mantri Gramin Awaas Yojana

This Pradhan Mantri Gramin Awaas Yojana scheme aims to provide housing for everyone. It was launched in 1985. It aimed to create 20 lakh housing units, of which 13 lakh were in rural areas.

This scheme also provides loans at subsidized rates for people to build houses. It was launched in 1999-2000. In 1999-2000, 1438.39 crores were used for this scheme and approximately 7.98 lakh units were constructed. In 2000-01, a central expenditure of 1710.00 crores was provided for this scheme. It improved living standards in rural areas: health, basic education, drinking water, housing, roads.

Efforts on poverty eradication have yielded results. For the first time since independence, the percentage of poor in some states is now much lower than the national average. Although there are many strategies to eradicate poverty, hunger, malnutrition, illiteracy, and lack of basic facilities continue to be common features in many parts of India. Although poverty eradication policy has evolved in a progressive manner over the past five and a half decades,

it has not undergone any radical transformation. You may find changes in the nomenclature, integration, or mutations of programs.

However, none of them have brought about any radical change in asset ownership, the production process, and the improvement of basic facilities for those in need.

3.2.8 Reasons for the Failure of Poverty Eradication Programs

Scholars, when evaluating these programs, cite three main factors that prevent their successful implementation. Due to the unequal distribution of land and other assets, the benefits of direct poverty eradication programs have been allocated to the non-poor.

- Compared to the magnitude of poverty, the resources allocated for these programs are insufficient. Furthermore, these programs primarily rely on government and bank officials for their implementation.

Such officials are ill-motivated, inadequately trained, prone to corruption, and subject to pressure from various local prominent individuals, so resources are used inefficiently and wasted.

There is also no participation of local level organizations in program implementation.

Government schemes have also failed to address the vulnerable people below or above the poverty line. It also reveals that high growth alone is not enough to reduce poverty. No program can be successfully implemented without the active participation of the poor.

3.2.9 Key Challenges

Generally, rural poverty reduction is achieved in the context of rapid economic growth. However, economic development is not a panacea. Rural poverty has persisted where policies have not paid adequate attention to improving agricultural productivity and rural infrastructure and have failed to provide social services and social protection to the rural population or facilitate the development of rural production and consumer organizations. Failure to improve access to productive resources and social services for backward groups and especially women further perpetuates rural poverty.

Climate change and other environmental threats, rapid population growth, and migration place disproportionate pressure on livelihoods in rural areas where poverty is already entrenched and people have less resilience.

While challenging, good management of natural resources and ecosystems is needed with poverty reduction efforts.

3.2.10 ?

Eradicating extreme poverty and significantly reducing moderate poverty by 2030 requires major shifts in policy priorities. To ensure that no one is denied universal human rights and basic economic opportunities, any new development agenda must focus on ensuring inclusive economic growth and reducing inequalities.

Employment opportunities must be created in line with a good work agenda. As the vast majority of poor people live in poor rural areas, the main focus should be on building more

productive, diverse, and resilient local rural economies with strong rural-urban economic linkages and accelerating climate-smart and sustainable production methods. This requires a transformative agenda:

The vast majority of the rural poor are smallholder farmers who are largely responsible for global food production. Helping them improve agricultural productivity through better access to resources, technologies, markets, and institutions is key to both poverty eradication and food security. Agricultural growth has five times more impact on poverty reduction compared to general growth in low-income developing countries

Environmental and resource sustainability are essential for poverty reduction. Increased food production will exacerbate land degradation, greenhouse gas emissions, and biodiversity loss unless production methods and consumption patterns become more sustainable. Smallholder farmers need affordable access to technologies and infrastructure to make food systems sustainable

Diversifying employment into non-agricultural activities is crucial to accelerate rural and urban poverty reduction. The growth of non-agricultural activities is often driven by agricultural growth and can stimulate local job creation.

Closing gender gaps in education and accessing productive resources significantly increases women's empowerment and incomes, especially in agriculture and rural areas

Their livelihoods

Roads and electricity improve connectivity to markets, strengthen rural-urban linkages, increase agricultural and non-agricultural productivity, and create employment

Improved social protection helps the poor better manage risks, improve their livelihoods, and improve their children's health and education. This not only helps accelerate poverty and hunger eradication but also reduces inequalities in life opportunities

Early investments in education, health, and nutrition are needed in rural areas. Many young people face economically uncertain opportunities whether they stay in villages or migrate to cities. Increasing profitable opportunities by enhancing rural youth skills and improving and diversifying local economic activities are essential for improving youth opportunities:

Addressing malnutrition contributes to poverty reduction by enhancing economic potential, human capabilities, and earning capacity, through improved physical and cognitive development and adequate food energy and productivity.

3.2.11

Poverty can be effectively eradicated only when the poor start contributing to growth by actively participating in the growth process. This is possible through a process of social mobilization, encouraging the poor to participate and empowering them. It also helps create employment opportunities leading to increased income, skill development, health, and literacy levels.

Furthermore, it is necessary to identify poverty-stricken areas and provide infrastructure such as schools, roads, electricity, telecom, IT services, training institutions, etc.

3.2.12 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Write a brief note on Concepts and Definitions and Multidimensional Poverty.
2. Write simply: A conceptual, analytical, and policy overview of poverty and the measurement of poverty and policy-related research.
3. Explain poverty eradication programs in India and the reasons for the failure of poverty eradication programs.

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RURAL - URBAN MIGRATION PATTERNS

The objective of this lesson is to explain rural to urban migration, inter-state migration flows, reasons for migration, factors influencing rural to urban migration, and the nuclear family as a side effect of urbanization.

Structure of the Lesson

3.3.0 Objective of the Lesson

3.3.1 Introduction

3.3.2 Rural to Urban Migration:

3.3.3 Inter-State Migration Flows:

3.3.4 Reasons for Migration:

3.3.5 Factors Influencing Rural and Urban Migration:

Side effect of urbanization:

3.3.7 Summary

3.4.8 Self-Assessment Questions

3.3.1 Introduction

Internal migration in India is not a new phenomenon. It has been historically and continuously

a process. However, the pattern of migration changes over time in response to socio-economic changes. Studies on internal migration based on census data as well as NSSO, indicate stagnation in population mobility until the early 2000s (Kund, 1996; Singh, 1998; Srivastava, 1998; Bhagat, 2010), but the post-reform period shows evidence of increased internal population movement. The latest NSSO statistics (2007/08) show that internal migration in India

increased from 25% in 1993 to 29% in 2007/08. According to the 2011 census, internal migration in India is estimated to have reached 400 million, accounting for 1/3rd of the population.

The current increase in migration rates can be attributed to various reasons. Poverty, declining livelihood opportunities in rural areas, environmental degradation, and other factors are pushing people out of their homes. In contrast, the growing service and industrial sectors in urban areas offer higher-paying jobs, while improvements in transport and communication facilitate regional mobility. Consequently, various activities (push/pull) during development not only increase the rate of mobility but also lead to the emergence of new migration patterns. The changing structure of the economy raises questions about whether it is

encouraging the poor and marginalized, or if migration is a characteristic of an affluent group leading to increasing trends. Therefore, this calls for more in-depth research on migration trends and patterns in India in recent years.

To understand and comprehend the migration situation in India, the objective of this paper is to understand the contemporary pattern of migration in India. Additionally, it attempts to understand issues related to internal migration in India. Since migration information available from the 2001 census and 2011 census data has not yet been released, the recent NSSO round provides an understanding of the ongoing changes in migration. Many studies analyzing migration trends and patterns in India have so far focused on lifetime migrants.

3.3.2 Rural to Urban Migration:

Migration from one region to another for better livelihood is a key feature of human history. While some regions and sectors remain backward in supporting the population, others have progressed, and people have migrated to access these developing opportunities. Industrialization increases the gap between rural and urban areas, also shifting the workforce towards industrialized areas.

Migration from rural to urban areas is widespread due to three factors: natural population growth, periodic reclassification of rural areas as urban, and rural to urban migration. In developing countries, approximately 2/5ths of total urban growth is accounted for by rural to urban migration. Over half of the urban workforce works in the informal sector, which is low-skilled, low-productivity, and often lacks stable productive employment in formal alternatives and services. Any social policy affecting rural and urban incomes is influenced by migration; it also affects the state's economic system or income distribution and population growth. The Sryas and Rodal model states that creating job opportunities in urban areas attracts more migrants than new jobs, leading to increased unemployment. According to my experience in India, many MNCs are trying to attract jobs for the IT sector and create productive opportunities. This has led to a disaster as there are a large number of migrants seeking jobs in cities like Mumbai, Bangalore, Delhi, Chennai, etc. This has led to an increase in the unemployment rate. Due to all these factors, living in cities is expensive; excessive migration also imposes external costs on less educated rural areas.

In 1901, the urban population was only 25.85 million, which was only 10.84% of India's population, and it increased to 285.85 million, which was 27.78% of the total population in 2001. The highest growth rate was observed in 1971 - 81%, and then urbanization slowed down. Urbanization indicators give us a brief idea about the growth rate of urbanization in India between 1971 and 1981. We only have census data up to 2001 in India, so according to my research, urbanization has grown again due to the services started by IT. BPO, back office support, software development, and all these factors have made the rural population move to big cities in search of jobs, and the urban population is growing.

Even though we have urbanized so much, rural and urban areas are interdependent. Urban cities provide agricultural products and many services to rural areas, such as input marketing, agricultural repairs, and education and health services. Urban areas are becoming important because they provide services to rural people; the number of urban centers per 10 lakh rural population has been measured. All statistics show the number of rural to urban migrants, and there are no clear job-related migrations to explain the exact reason for people migrating. After this paper, we will discuss inter-state migration, laborers, or production-income migration.

3.3.3 Inter-State Migration Flows:

To measure the magnitude of the migrant population within the country, rural to urban migration flows, and to identify the pattern and magnitude of internal migration, the direction of migrants can be used.

It is clear that more migrants are moving only to the big three or four cities in each state. However, there are exceptions to this. Due to the vast size of India and the large variations in physical and cultural environments across India, migration trends in this country show some specific characteristics. As we can observe from the census data regarding migration, the main accounting of migration is inter-state migration. More than half of the migrations occur within the district, and the number of migrations decreases with increasing distance. However, according to interesting research done by the Erris community, 41% of the total migrants came to Maharashtra from Uttar Pradesh, even though it is not a bordering state to Maharashtra. Similarly, migrants from Orissa largely chose Gujarat and Maharashtra, contributing to about 34%. In the case of Bihar, about 50% of the people migrated to West Bengal, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, and Jharkhand. Bihar and Uttar Pradesh together account for up to 70% of total migrations in India. More than 1/3rd of migrants in Tamil Nadu went to Karnataka, and the remaining states mainly chose Kerala, Maharashtra, and Uttar Pradesh. This overall pattern shows that Maharashtra received the highest number of migrants from every region in India for labor or personal employment. The reason behind this is Mumbai, because it is called the economic capital of India.

3.3.4 Reasons for Migration:

India is collecting information on the causes of migration related to its past history. The most important reason for female migration is marriage, accounting for more than half of female migrants. This is due to the Indian custom of women migrating to their husband's place after marriage. More than 1/10th of female migrants are moving due to employment and production, while education accounts for 2% of total migrants (Bhagat, 2004). The National Sample Survey (NSS) estimates that government employees move from one place to another. In many parts of India, some natural disasters and droughts occur, due to which many people migrate. This was one of the reasons recorded in the 1981 and 1991 censuses. According to the 2001 census (National Sample Survey, 2001), this ratio has drastically decreased. The survey also gave prominence to human-made disasters such as riots and social unrest as reasons for migration. Terrorism also causes static people living in border areas of India to migrate. Due to industrialization, urbanization, and migration to foreign countries, thousands of people are becoming homeless. In India, a woman gives birth at her parents' home, not at her husband's place. The child born at the parents' home is a migrant. These are some of the main reasons why people migrate from one place to another.

3.3.5 Factors Influencing Rural and Urban Migration:

Migration is an adaptive livelihood strategy pursued in India and not merely a response to shocks (Deshingkar & Anderson, 2004). People definitely migrate because there is not enough work available in rural areas, but such migration should not be understood as forced or distress migration. Many poor and unskilled individuals view migration as an opportunity.

There are various problems influencing the massive migration of people from rural to urban areas, which is causing unbalanced urbanization and extreme urban decay in India. Poverty, unemployment, and underdevelopment are increasing due to social migration.

Firstly, the poor, landless, illiterate, and unskilled agricultural laborers and poor women from backward states are moving to urban cities like Kolkata, Mumbai, New Delhi, Chennai, and other big cities, which are failing to provide productive employment to the state. Due to such migration patterns, urban slums and squatter settlements and very low living standards are common in such urban cities. It can also lead to extreme shortages of basic necessities like housing, shelter, water, electricity, proper sanitation, and transportation.

Secondly, the concentration of unskilled migrants in urban areas, where the state's capacity to provide productive employment in the industrial sector is very limited. Therefore, migrants are paid very low wages and are often exploited due to their lack of knowledge. While such migration contributes to avoiding distress, it does not improve the state's economic situation. Thirdly, such cities are filled with slums with poor human development indicators, which include low literacy, water, and electricity.

Finally, due to such metropolitan cities, economic inequalities where "the rich become richer and the poor remain poor" are developing very rapidly. This leads to serious social unrest, severe class conflict, crimes, widespread violence, and urban unrest.

It has only affected urban areas; if people start migrating from rural areas to urban areas, it will affect agriculture. India is called an agricultural country, and if the supply of shelter is low, the rate will be higher than basic facilities. This will also lead to high inflation and poverty.

Side effect of urbanization:

The nuclear family, like other regions, is now a characteristic feature in Indian society. All families are nuclear families, 70%, and 11% are families with a single member or more than one member without a living partner. This is the overall picture of the entire country, but in the case of cities, the nuclear ratio is somewhat higher (this data is available from the National Family and Health Survey, 1998-99). The divorce rate and the number of single members are also slowly increasing due to the influence of Western culture. The United States is characterized by a high degree of urbanization, which marks a high number of nuclear family members. Approximately a decade ago, about 20% of families in the USA consisted of a single person. The conversion of joint families into nuclear families is relatively higher among young people. This is because young men and women want to be financially independent, focus more on their careers, and believe they can make their own decisions, which they cannot do in a joint family. As we can see from the above discussion, the traditionally harmonious Indian society is going on the path of Westernization and is leaning more towards an independent and individualistic approach.

3.3.7 Summary

Due to industrialization and modernization in India, migration from rural areas to urban areas in the state is slowly increasing. The main reason for migration is employment or job-related migration. The ratio of male and female migration is equal; male migration in India has the highest number of migrations. This shows that women generally migrate with men due to

many other factors like marriage or family bonding. However, in recent surveys, single women are also boldly going out in search of jobs. Mainly the poor population shows extreme desire for jobs or livelihoods in urban cities. Due to this, the poor population laborers are getting low wages and are being exploited, due to which inequalities in society are increasing.

Secondly, we have shown the reasons for migration; the National Sample Survey (NSS) is trying to collect a lot of information about migration. The NSS also collects information about the production and unemployment of migrants. All this information will help India to develop its other opportunities and to accommodate this type of migrant. We have seen how urbanization is affecting Indian societies. The growth of nuclear families; this has broken the traditional joint family system. Many men and women want to be independent and work in cities; this is slowly destroying traditional family values, increasing the number of working mothers and single parents in cities, and also increasing divorce cases. Due to this, children and the elderly are being neglected. Joint families cannot survive in urban cities, so they keep their old parents in rural areas, which is a sign of danger to social families in India. Urbanization has also caused other negative effects such as increased domestic violence and the practice of dowry. To protect this type of traditional values and family systems, a strong, stable set of policies is needed to strengthen the Indian family system.

3.3.8 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Write a brief note on rural to urban migration and inter-state migration.
2. Write simply about the causes of migration and factors influencing rural to urban migration:
3. Explain the negative effects of urbanization on the nuclear family.

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Causes and Consequences of Rural-Urban Migration

3.2.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to explain migration theories, the history of Indian migration, the flow of rural-urban migration, the trend of rural-urban migration in India, the causes of rural-urban migration in India, and the consequences of rural-urban migration in India.

Structure of the Lesson

3.4.0 Objective of the Lesson

3.4.1 Introduction

3.4.2 Migration Theories

3.4.3 Traditional Theories of Migration

3.4.4 Permanent Theories of Migration

3.4.5 Causes of Rural-Urban Migration in India

3.4.6 Consequences of Migration

3.4.7 Summary

3.4.8 Self-Assessment Questions

3.4.1 Introduction

Migration is the movement of a person from one place to another for some time or permanently with various types of voluntary desires. It has a great impact on people's economic, social, cultural, and psychological life, both at the origin and destination, as well as on migrants (Kaur, 2003). Similarly, migration is defined as the temporary movement of a person from one region to another, usually within a defined period of migration and involving a change in residence across administrative boundaries (UN, 1993). Along with its regional dimension, migration also indicates the intensity of work, education, social life, and family ties. A migrant is a person who disrupts activities and attachments in one place and has to re-establish a new life in another place. The change in residence may be permanent or temporary (Narayan, 1990). Internal migration is a change of residence within national boundaries (Dung, 2005). Until 1951, only a person who changed residence from their district of birth to another district or state was considered a migrant in India (Duppung Area (MDA)). From 1961, data on migration is collected by considering each village or town as a unit of enumeration (Bhagat, 2005).

It is the voluntary movement of people across administrative/political boundaries with a partially permanent residence. According to the right granted to Indian citizens by the Indian

political system, Indian people are free to go anywhere in India for better opportunities or for any other reason. Migration indicates the movement of a person or family or group of persons from one place to another with a change in residence due to various factors such as social, cultural, economic, and non-economic factors. Migration problems primarily arise from social, cultural, economic, political, and/or physical conditions, in which individuals or groups find themselves (Bande and Katkar, 1982). Besides being a major determinant of population change, migration is a major way for the transmission of ideas and innovations, and therefore it is a major force of regional change. From a functional perspective, migration is the cause and effect of regional and spatial disparities and a major cause of changes in the structure of society. The regions where migration occurs, the regions where migrants go, and the migrants themselves are never the same (Bourgain-Gaminier, 1966).

A person is considered a migrant if their place of birth and place of enumeration are different. According to the 1971 census, an additional question on the last place of residence was introduced to collect migration data. Since then, the census has provided data on migrants based on Place of Birth (POB) and Last Place of Residence (POLR). If the place of birth or the last place of residence is different from the place of enumeration, a person is defined as a migrant. On the other hand, if the place of birth and the place of enumeration are the same, that person is a non-migrant (Bhagat, 2005).

The main strength of migration theories is their systematic nature. From the first law of migration (Marion Latban 1885), Lubas (1954), Ray (1966), and Sryas-Rodho model (Rodho 1976 and 1977 and Sryas and Rodho 1970), the systematic nature of migration is a consequence of regional inequalities. According to Marion Latban's laws of migration (1875-89), most migrants travel short distances, and the number of migrants decreases with increasing distance. Migrations occur in steps or stages. Every major migration system, once established, generates a counter-system. Urban residents are less likely to migrate than rural residents. The main reasons for migration are economic. Ray's model (1966) simplified the 'push-pull' model into two types. It introduced the idea of intervening obstacles that must be overcome before migration occurs. When applied to individual characteristics such as age, sex, and marital status, it includes the broader characteristics of the origin and destination.

According to Lubas' model (1954), the transformation from rural areas to urban areas is characterized by two phases: the primary phase of individuals in agriculture providing support for basic needs and the secondary phase of labor and capital for industrial development. Lubas' model states that agricultural surplus and labor must be uniquely mobilized to initiate industrial development. Development is integrated through the continuous transfer of labor and resources from the "traditional sector" in the rural area to the "modern sector" in the urban area. The continuous accumulation of capital in the modern sector provides the impetus for continuous transfers. Lubas wrote that the traditional sector is also characterized by surplus labor (a situation where labor can be removed without loss in production). Essentially, these assumptions allow for industrial development with an unlimited supply of labor, at least until the surplus-labor phase ends. However, the theory does not discuss the decisive factors behind the transfer of laborers from the traditional sector in rural areas to the modern sector in urban areas.

The classical theory of rural-urban migration is formulated by Sryas and Rodho (1970). The main idea of the model is that the formal urban sector pays higher wages to laborers. In contrast to the higher wages paid in the formal sector, there are lower wages in the informal urban sector and the rural sector. In the Sryas-Rodho model, migration is considered a response to the significant wage gap between rural and formal urban sectors. However, rural

people migrate to urban areas only because of the real wage differential, which is what the laborer gets extra in the urban area after accounting for the cost of living compared to the rural area. Besides this factor, there are other economic factors that push the state towards urban areas (Kumar, 2014).

3.4.2 Migration Theories

Many attempts have been made by researchers to explain migration in terms of various theories, but they appear to be fragmented. Furthermore, there is no generally accepted theory that explains international migration. International migration theories can be divided into two groups, and they are theories that explain the initiation and consequences of international migration, and another group of theories that explain the permanence of international migration.

3.4.3 Traditional Theories of Migration

The economic assessment of migration involves two aspects: the redistribution of labor and the exploration of opportunities. For example, the economist Adam Smith proposed that labor migration occurs due to imbalances in the labor market in various regions (Lefebvre, 2005). However, to explain the phenomenon of labor migration, the oldest scientific method is based on Marion Latban's laws of migration, in which he highlighted the concept of 'opportunity seeking' as the main objective of migration (Marion Latban, 1889). Subsequently, many types of studies were proposed to explain the initiation and causes of international migration. There are six main traditional theories related to migration, and they are reviewed in this section. They are: 1. Neo-classical theory, 2. Situation-oriented approach (push-pull hypotheses), 3. The World System theory, 4. Dual labor market policy, 5. Liberal choice and structural theories; and 6. The theory of development in a dual economy. These can be briefly summarized as follows.

1. Neo-classical Theory

According to the neo-classical theory of migration, labor migration leads to differences in real wages between countries and labor migration leads to equilibrium in the international labor market, which reduces wage disparities between countries. The neo-classical theory explains the macro and micro aspects of migration. The neo-classical macro theory of migration was proposed by Hicks (1932). According to this theory, the unequal distribution of capital and labor at the macro level leads to inequality in wages and living conditions and leads to migration. Migrants move to places where production, wages, and other economic conditions are favorable to them, thereby increasing the chances of ending disparities in wages and living conditions between places. The neo-classical micro approach to migration (Theory of the New Economics of Migration) considers not only the labor market but also situations like the capital market or the unemployment insurance market as causes of migration. Additionally, this theory also considers the household's strategy behind migration because the real drive of migration is to change the meaning of wealth rather than to increase it. This theory also emphasizes the importance of the economic benefits of migration in the context of socio-cultural changes. Furthermore, this theory also helps to understand why individuals belonging to a specific community are more likely to be migrant workers. It also noted that poor people are less likely to migrate compared

to the rich due to the high costs of migration (International Labor Organization, 2003).

2. Situation-Oriented Approach (Push-Pull Hypotheses)

Ray (Ray, 1966) developed this method to explain the involuntary nature of migrants. According to him, push-pull factors are the most important aspect of migration. Here, push factors are adverse factors at the origin, while pull factors are favorable in the destination area. Along with this, they suggest that migration decisions and processes are influenced by factors related to the origin, destination, intervening factors, individual factors, and fluctuations in the economic system.

3. World System Theory

Wallerstein proposed the World System Theory, in which he attempted to link the development process of countries with international migration. The theory states that unequal development between core developed countries and peripheral agricultural countries is the root cause of migration. According to his theory, core countries develop by exploiting peripheral countries. Furthermore, this theory states that globalization is a natural consequence and market penetration across national boundaries (Wallerstein, 1974). The theory also noted that globalization, cheap transport, and multinational companies, etc., lead to various forms of migration (Joy, 2000).

4. Dual Labor Market Theory

According to this theory, industrial countries' labor markets are dual in nature – skilled laborers (primary sector) and unskilled laborers (secondary sector). Skilled laborers receive good wages, but unskilled laborers in the secondary sector receive low wages, so local laborers are reluctant to take up secondary jobs. Employers do not pay high wages to local laborers for unpleasant jobs because they want to maintain wage disparities between the two types of jobs. Due to the shortage of laborers at the bottom of the job hierarchy, employers have to hire unskilled foreign laborers, who are not particular about permanent residence, but readily accept secondary jobs because it pays them more (Niro, 1979; Stalker, 2000).

5. Liberal Choice and Structural Theories

According to Ghosh, the international movement of laborers is caused by economic factors, and he summarized two models of migration theories. They are traditional theories (utility maximization) and core-periphery conflict (structural) theories. According to traditional theories, laborers from low-wage countries

moved from to high-wage countries, and as a result, effectively utilizes labor and reduces inter-country wage disparities.

However, according to structural theories, migration due to differences in economic and political conditions of countries widens wage and income inequalities (Ghosh, 1996).

6. Dual Economy Development Model

According to the dual economy model, labor migration plays a crucial role in the economic development of a country. Therefore, according to this theory, migration between countries is primarily due to differences in wages and employment opportunities. Furthermore, it considers migration as an individual decision for income maximization. Therefore, the flow of migration for a long time has been due to the long-standing imbalance between countries (1953-1980).

3.4.4 Permanent Theories of Migration

Permanent theories of migration emphasized kinship and friendship networks as important factors in migration. Interpersonal relationships connect migrants, former migrants, and non-migrants at the origin and destination, which promotes circular migration and reduces migration risk (Tilly and Brown, 1967). There are some theories explaining the continuation of migration, among which the two most relevant from the perspective of the current study are the Migration Network Theory and the Cumulative Causation Theory.

1. Migration Network Theory

This theory considers migration as a network process, in which migrants help each other by communicating with close friends and family members. They exchange information, provide financial assistance, and also help migrants find jobs. Such interaction is emphasized to facilitate migration by reducing costs and risks. However, there have been instances where migrants have migrated through illegal means via friends and relatives. This has resulted in hardship and migrants being subjected to violence and exploitation (IOM, 2003).

The cumulative causation theory of migration was proposed by Massey, and according to this theory, the continuation of migration comes from migrants interacting with other people at the origin. The theory also states that migration is stable by creating more migration (Massey, 1990). Based on the theories reviewed above, it can be concluded that there is no general theory or principle that explains different types of migration. However, these theories have established different factors, tendencies, and causes behind migration. As such, these theories reveal the important factors and characteristics of migration from Kerala to reE2 countries.

3. History of Indian Migration

In India, human mobility, especially in rural and urban areas, is not a new or recent phenomenon. During the British colonial period, the Royal Commission on Labour 1931 explained that rural laborers were not drawn to industries from India because cities had few attractions for them (Davis, 1951). Since the dawn of human civilization, migrations have been primarily driven by economic factors. For example, in the early stages of human history, people migrated/moved to collect natural products and for hunting purposes. Thus, in the pastoral stage, they moved towards green pastures, and in the agricultural stage, they had to search for fresh and fertile lands (Sinha and Ataullah, 1987). Five decades ago, Kingsley Davis observed that population statistics in India had relatively low mobility and that their mobility in a specific area was a concern due to economic, social, and cultural reasons (Davis, 1951). Zakaria (1964), based on the observation of many studies, found that the Indian population was very immobile but generally attached to its villages.

Zakaria strongly recommended that the reasons for the low mobility of Indian residents were linguistic problems and could be a factor preventing the movement of people from one state to another (, 1964).

During British colonial rule in India, people migrated with the aim of meeting the needs of capitalist development in India and abroad. After independence or in the early days of independence, when many industries were established in different parts of the country, the movement of people intensified. However, researchers have not given much importance to further understanding and studying historical Indian migration trends and patterns. The lack of comprehensive data may have overlooked many researchers in understanding these issues. The number of studies (Zakaria, 1963 & 1964, Bose, 1977: Nair and Narayan

1985; Premi, 1990; Singh, 1998; and Bhagat; 2005) found that the volume of interstate migration in India is low. But the fact was emphasized. One-third of the Indian population was enumerated outside their place of birth. This indicates the importance of migration as a major demographic process in India.

Research interest in migration increased after the decline in fertility and mortality (Battistella et al., 1996). The Census of India has been providing migration information since 1872. However, low mobility in the Indian population has been observed based on the definition of place of birth (Bhatia and Sabagh 1980). In all decadal censuses since 1981, the proportion of persons enumerated in a state other than their birth state has consistently been shown to be around three percent (১৯৬১, 1967- 1974). However, the Census of India does not provide lifetime migration and return migration statistics. Nevertheless, it provides the rate of rural-urban migration. It also has the scope to analyze inter-state and intra-state migration and consequently suggests that the disparity is higher in rural areas than in urban areas (Kundu, 1986). These disparities can be considered by the spatial boundaries crossed by migrants.

As we know, the population of the Indian subcontinent has a low mobile nature. However, with economic development and improvement in infrastructure and communications, an increase in population mobility is predicted. In fact, most of them are clustered in informal sectors, especially in the textile, construction, and agricultural sectors. On the other hand, there are many types of workers in the informal sector, including casual laborers and illegal migrants who undertake various types of jobs. Due to the qualitative impact of mobility and migration, the diversification in livelihood strategies of labor families has led to increased bargaining power and higher reservation wages. Additionally, a small percentage of migrant workers are able to obtain ways to improve their reproductive base in the rural economy.

We also know that migration is a dynamic process and it involves different forms of temporary and geographical mobility. There are many types and forms of migration. It can be in the form of temporary or permanent migration or seasonal migration throughout the year (Asper, 2000). Recent village-level studies in various parts of India show a significant increase in population movement, including long-term and temporary migration, especially commuter migration from drought-prone areas. In this type of migration study, many studies have focused on rural and urban migration in India (Khan, 1986: De Haan, 1997; Sharma, 1997). In the past, labor out-migration played a stabilizing role in poor areas and now clearly accelerates change in production.

relations. The main characteristics of migrant workers are elastic supply, long and flexible working hours, and low wage costs. Migrant workers are easily disciplined and their presence

has a disciplinary effect on local workers and affects local wages. The migration of workers to urban areas is largely absorbed by the informal sector.

3.4.5 Causes of Migration

People are generally psychologically attached to their place of birth. But millions of people have left their places of birth and residence. There can be various reasons. These reasons can be divided into two broad categories: (i) Push factors, which cause people to leave their place of residence or origin; and (ii) Pull factors, which attract people from different places. In India, people primarily migrate from rural to urban areas due to poverty, high population pressure on land, lack of basic infrastructure like healthcare, and education. In addition to these factors, natural disasters like floods, droughts, cyclones, earthquakes, tsunamis, wars, and local conflicts also provide an additional push to migrate. On the other hand, there are pull factors that attract people from rural areas to cities. The most important pull factor for the majority of rural migrants to urban areas is good opportunities, availability of regular work, and relatively higher wages. Better opportunities for education, improved health facilities, and recreational resources, etc., are also very important pull factors. Consider different reasons for male and female migration. Based on statistics, it can be seen that the reasons for male and female migration are different. For example, work and employment are the main reasons for male migration (26 percent), while for women it is only 2.3 percent. In contrast, almost 67 percent of women move out of their parental homes after marriage. This is a very important reason in rural areas of India except Meghalaya, where the reverse is the case compared to male marriage migration, which is only 4 percent in the country.

3.4.6 Consequences of Migration

Migration is a response to the unequal distribution of opportunities in space. People move from a place of less opportunity and less security to a place of more opportunity and better security. This creates benefits and problems for those areas. People migrate and emigrate. Consequences can be observed in economic, social, cultural, political, and demographic terms.

The main benefit to the source region is remittances sent by migrants. Remittances from international migrants are one of the main sources of foreign exchange. In 2002, India received 11 billion US dollars as remittances from international migrants. Punjab, Kerala, and Tamil Nadu are receiving very significant amounts from their international migrants. The amount of remittances sent by internal migrants is very small compared to international migrants, but it plays an important role in the economic growth of the source region. Remittances are mainly used for food, debt repayment, medical treatment, marriages, children's education, agricultural inputs, house construction, etc. Remittances to thousands of poor villages in Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Odisha, Andhra Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, etc., act as the lifeblood of their economy. Migration from rural areas of eastern Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, and Odisha to rural areas of Punjab, Haryana, and western Uttar Pradesh has been successful in their green revolution strategy for agricultural development. Apart from this, uncontrolled migration to metropolitan cities in India has caused overcrowding. The development of slums in industrially developed states like Maharashtra, Gujarat, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, and Delhi is a negative consequence of uncontrolled migration in the country.

Demographic Consequences

Migration leads to population redistribution in the country. Rural-urban migration is one of the important factors contributing to the population growth of cities. Age and skill selection migration from rural areas has a negative impact on the rural population structure. However, high migration from Uttarakhand, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, and eastern Maharashtra has brought about severe imbalances in the age and sex composition in these states. Similar imbalances have also occurred in recipient states. What causes imbalances in the sex ratio at the origin and destination of migrants?

Social Consequences

Migrants act as agents of social change. New ideas related to new technologies, family planning, girl child education, etc., spread from urban to rural areas through them.

Migration leads to the mixing of people from different cultures. This has positive contributions such as the evolution of a mixed culture and overcoming narrow considerations, and largely expands people's mental horizons. But it also has serious negative consequences such as anonymity.

This creates a sense of social vacuum and depression in individuals. A continuous feeling of discouragement motivates people to fall into the trap of anti-social activities like crime and drug abuse.

Environmental Consequences

Crowding of people in urban areas due to rural-urban migration has put pressure on the social and physical infrastructure in urban areas. This ultimately leads to unplanned growth of urban settlements and the formation of slum hut colonies.

Apart from this, due to over-exploitation of natural resources, cities are facing serious problems like depletion of groundwater, air pollution, sewage disposal, and solid waste management.

Others

Migration (excluding marriage migration) directly or indirectly affects the status of women. In rural areas, men migrating and leaving their wives puts additional physical and mental stress on women. Migration of 'women' for education or employment improves their autonomy and role in the economy.

While remittances are the main benefits of migration from the perspective of the source region, the loss of human resources, especially highly skilled individuals, is the most serious cost. The market for advanced skills has truly become a global market, and highly dynamic industrial economies are accepting and recruiting significant proportions of highly trained professionals from poorer regions. Consequently, the existing underdeveloped status of the source region is further strengthened.

3.4.7 Summary

Singh (1995) and Chopra (1998) observed that interstate migration is higher in India compared to international migration. They also observed that some states are traditionally sending states, while others are considered receiving states. For example, Punjab has been

demanding laborers for various agricultural activities through pull factors from neighboring states like Uttar Pradesh, Jammu Kashmir, Bihar, Odisha, West Bengal, Rajasthan, and Madhya Pradesh for decades (Sidhu and Rangi, 1998). Clearly, the impact of migration on origin and destination areas is considered two sides of the same capitalist dynamic. On one hand, it promotes mobility, thereby increasing pressure on wages even with limited demand for labor in poor areas. On the other hand, it also absorbs labor under favorable conditions for investors. The migration process in India is as old as Indian civilization. It is an important part of economic development and social and political organization. The current development path of Indians has created regional disparities. Developed regions have created demand for laborers, and backward regions have become labor suppliers. For example, agriculturally and industrially developed states like Punjab have created additional demand for labor through migrant workers from backward states like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Himachal Pradesh, Haryana, Rajasthan, Jammu and Kashmir. Odisha (Chnad et al., 1998). More developed states like Punjab and Haryana have a higher percentage of interstate migration compared to other less developed states, which shows that the movement of people depends on the level of state development. Studies have further argued that the movement among Indian migrants definitely follows different stages. In the first stage, rural people migrate to nearby small towns and tend towards an urban lifestyle. Due to this change, they faced various social and economic constraints in nearby towns. Unemployment is the most important and powerful push factor, which plays a special role in pushing people from rural areas with the aspiration of urban employment opportunities. However, the process of transferring surplus workers from rural to urban areas has increased hardship. However, migration is considered a survival strategy for the poor and landless labor families (Kundu, 1986).

3.4.8 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Write a brief note on migration theories.
2. Write simply on Classical Theories of Migration and Permanent Theories of Migration.
3. Explain the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration in India.

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CONCEPT AND EVOLUTION OF PANCHAYAT RAJ

After reading this section, you will be able to: shed light on the evolution and growth of the Panchayat Raj system in India, discuss the government's policy towards Panchayat Raj Institutions (PRIs), explain the need to revitalize PRIs and enhance democratic decentralization.

Structure

4.1.0 Objectives

4.1.1 Introduction

4.1.2 Structure of Panchayats

4.1.3 Panchayat Raj Institute includes the following institutions:

4.1.4 Evolution of Panchayat Raj in India

4.1.5 Features of 73rd Amendment Act 1992

4.1.6 Composition of Panchayats

4.1.7 Powers and Responsibilities of Panchayats

4.1.8 Three-tier structure of Panchayat Raj

4.1.9 Functions of Panchayat

4.1.10

4.1.11 Self-Assessment Questions

4.1.1 Introduction

Panchayat Raj in India is a system of local self-governance, through which people in rural areas have taken responsibility for their socio-economic and cultural development. Basically, it is an arrangement for people's participation in the management of local affairs.

Information on the evolution of Panchayat Raj is not easily available. Historians have been able to obtain some details from a close study of past inscriptions and some scattered references related to Panchayat Raj. From these studies, we infer that local self-governing bodies existed in ancient India. And local bodies enjoyed a large amount of freedom from state control. In this context, we recall the statement made by Metalfé. He said, "Village communities are small republics, which possess every tibia they desire within themselves and are almost independent of foreign relations. They seem to exist where there is no alternative, dynasty after dynasty falls; revolutions succeed in revolutions.. The unity of village communities, each forming a separate small state, to enjoy a great part of happiness and freedom and independence." It is also understood that village communities showed agility

and dynamism in their functioning. However, the picture depicted by Metcalfe may be ideal, but all accounts of the village

The fact is that there were village panchayats that met the needs of the people living in the villages. Later they became obsolete. Early British rule led to their disintegration. So, it was argued that it would be possible to restore their health and well-being if these institutions were revived and revitalized with adequate encouragement and foresight to face the challenges of modern times.

India, fundamentally, is a land of villages and 72% of the total population of India lives in rural areas. Rural areas form the roots of governance in India and democracy should start from there. Mahatma Gandhi also said that the main element for development and governance should be the village rather than large cities, because this is where India is. In India, we have a unique system for governance at the village level. The administration of such a small unit in India is managed by institutions called Panchayat Raj Institutions. Panchayat Raj Institute derives its existence from the Constitution under Part IX under the heading of Panchayats. The story is not a few decades old; rather it has been prevalent in India for ages.

4.1.2 Structure of Panchayats

Although the essential structure of PRIs is inseparable from the conditions in India, it has been depicted through various classifications in different states. Panchayats in each state have their own characteristics and the ethnic strategies for these establishments also fluctuate from region to region. A District Panchayat or District Parishad has been established for each region. Each district will have a District Parishad. Similarly, Block Panchayats or Panchayats have established Samitis for the region.

A block may have some towns under its jurisdiction, while Gram Panchayats are not inextricably linked to every town. A gram is classified by law with a specific geographical zone based on population scale (actually, the number of voters). It may consist of a single town or a group of connecting towns.

4.1.3 Panchayat Raj Institute includes the following institutions:

District Panchayat

Each Panchayat Parishad within the district directly elects one/two/three persons (depending on the number of voters within it). All presidents of Block Panchayats are ex-officio members of the District Parishad. In some expressions, the Member of Legislative Assembly (MLA) and Member of Parliament (MP) in the locale/body electorate are additionally ex-officio members.

Block Panchayat or Panchayat Samiti

Each Gram Panchayat within the jurisdiction of a Block Panchayat specifically elects one/two/three persons to the Block Panchayat. Village heads are ex-officio members from Block Panchayats. 9

Gram Panchayat

A Gram (i.e., a town or group of towns) classified under the Act is divided into at least five voting demographics (again depending on the number of voters the village has). One part is elected from each of these voting demographics. This elected body of persons is called the Gram Panchayat. The size of Gram Panchayats generally varies from state to state. In states like West Bengal and Kerala, a Gram Panchayat has an average of 20,000 people, while in many states it has about 3,000 people.

Gram Sabha

In most of the states, every voting public of individuals from the Gram Panchayat is called Gram Sabha and every single voter from the same institution is an individual from this institution. In any case, in some expressions, it is called Ward Sabha / Palli Sabha etc. In West Bengal, it is called Gram Sansad (town parliament). In West Bengal, Gram Sabha has alternative importance. Here the Gram Panchayat

Every voter in the constituency forms the Gram Sabha. According to the Constitution, Panchayats only have three tiers. Gram Sabha is not a tier of the Panchayat Raj. It currently has no official authority and acts as an advisory body.

Gram Sabhas generally hold 2 to 4 meetings every year, but they meet when and where it is most important. In some states, the dates of these meetings are changed (Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat, and so on), while in others, the dates are determined by the Gram Panchayats. The issues to be discussed in the meetings are many, but the key points should be: Annual action plan and budget, annual accounts and annual report of the GP, selection of beneficiaries for various social welfare programs (e.g., Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana, various pension schemes), annual plan for the growth activities of the Gram Panchayat (e.g., MGNREGA) plan for plans, audit reports, investigations of Gram Panchayat implementation, and so on.

4.1.4 Evolution of Panchayat Raj in India

Panchayat Raj is not a new concept in India. Panchayats (council of five persons) have existed in Indian villages since ancient times, possessing both executive and judicial powers and dealing with various problems (land distribution, tax collection, etc.) or disputes arising in the village area.

Gandhiji also emphasized the empowerment of Panchayats for the development of rural areas. Thus, our Constitution makers recognized their importance and included a provision for Panchayats in Part IV of our Constitution (Directive Principles of State Policy).

Art. 40 makes it the responsibility of the states to organize Gram Panchayats and take steps to provide them with the necessary powers and authority to function as units of self-government. However, no guidelines were given for the organization of Gram Panchayats.

Therefore, to strengthen its official body and structure, the Balwant Rai Mehta Committee, 1957 (Committee to Review Community Development Program, 1952) was formed.

The Committee, in its report in November 1957, recommended the establishment of a scheme of 'democratic decentralization', which was eventually called Panchayat Raj. It recommended a three-tier system at the village, block, and district levels and also recommended direct

elections for the village level panchayat. Rajasthan was the first state to adopt Panchayat Raj, which was launched from Nagaur district on October 2, 1959.

Subsequently, the Ashok Mehta Committee on Panchayat Raj was appointed in December 1977 and submitted its report in August 1978 with various recommendations to revive and strengthen the declining Panchayat Raj system in the country.

Its main recommendations included a two-tier Panchayat system, regular social audit, representation of political parties in all levels of Panchayat elections, provisions related to general elections, reservations for SC/STs in Panchayats, and having a Panchayat Raj Minister in the state cabinet.

Furthermore, the GVK Rao Committee appointed in 1985 recommended some measures to strengthen Panchayat Raj institutions.

The LM Singhvi Committee was the first to recommend constitutional status for Panchayat Raj institutions and also suggested constitutional provisions to ensure free, fair, and impartial elections for Panchayat Raj institutions.

In response to the LM Singhvi Committee's recommendations, a bill was introduced in the Lok Sabha in July 1989 by the Rajiv Gandhi government for the constitutionalization of Panchayat Raj institutions, but the bill was not approved in the Rajya Sabha.

The VP Singh government also brought a bill, but the fall of the government canceled the bill. After that, the PV Narasimha Rao government introduced a bill for this in the Lok Sabha in September 1991, and the bill finally emerged as the 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act, 1992, and came into force on April 24, 1993.

4.1.5 Features of 73rd Amendment Act 1992

In 1992, a new Part - IX was added to the Constitution through the 73rd Constitutional Amendment. It also added a new XI Schedule containing a list of 29 functional items for Panchayats and made statutory provisions for the establishment, empowerment, and functioning of Panchayat Raj institutions. Some provisions in this amendment are binding on the states, while others are left to the discretion of the respective state legislatures. The main features of this amendment are as follows:

1. Institution of Gram Sabhas
2. Creation of a three-tier Panchayat Raj structure at the District (Zilla), Block, and Village levels
3. Almost all seats at all levels are to be filled by direct elections
4. Minimum age for contesting elections to Panchayat Raj institutions is twenty-one years
5. Chairpersons of Panchayats at the District and Block levels are to be filled by indirect elections
6. One-third of the seats are to be reserved for Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes in proportion to their population and for women in Panchayats
7. Establishment of a State Election Commission

8. Term of institutions is five years, fresh elections within six months if dissolved prematurely; and
9. Establishment of a State Finance Commission in each state every five years.

Some provisions not binding on states are only guidelines:

1. Inclusion of representation of members of Central and State Legislatures in these institutions
2. Providing reservations for backward classes; and
3. Giving financial powers to Panchayat Raj institutions regarding taxes, collection of fees, etc., and striving to make Panchayats self-governing bodies.

4.1.6 Composition of Panchayats

The Panchayat Raj system established according to the 73rd Amendment is a three-tier structure based on direct elections at the three levels of village, intermediate, and district. Exemption is given from the intermediate tier for small states with less than 20 lakh population.

Small states with a population of less than 20 lakhs are given exemption from the intermediate level. This means they are free to not have an intermediate level Panchayat.

All members of the Panchayat are directly elected. However, if a state so decides, members of the state legislature and parliament can also represent in the district and intermediate-level Panchayats.

Intermediate level Panchayats are generally called Panchayat Samitis. Provisions have been made for the chairpersons of Gram Panchayats to be included in the Block and District level Panchayats.

The provision regarding reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes has already been discussed. However, it should also be noted here that one-third of the total seats in the quota reserved for Scheduled Castes/Tribes are reserved for women, and one-third of the total seats are reserved for women.

Reservation has also been provided for the offices of Chairpersons. Reserved seats are allotted to various constituencies within the Panchayat area on a rotational basis. State legislatures can provide further reservations for Other Backward Classes (OBCs) in Panchayats.

Term of a Panchayat

The amendment provides for the continuous existence of Panchayats. The normal term of a Panchayat is five years. If a Panchayat is dissolved prematurely, elections are held within six months. There is a provision for a State Election Commission for the preparation of electoral rolls and for the superintendence, direction, and control of elections to Panchayats.

4.1.7 Powers and Responsibilities of Panchayats

State legislatures can give Panchayats the necessary powers and authority to function as self-governing bodies at the grassroots level.

They can be given the responsibility to prepare plans for economic development and social justice. They can formulate economic development and social justice schemes related to the 29 important subjects mentioned in the XI Schedule, such as agriculture, primary and secondary education, health and sanitation, drinking water, rural housing, welfare of weaker sections, social forestry, etc. Through them.

4.1.8 Three-tier structure of Panchayat Raj

Panchayat Samiti

Panchayat Samiti is the second or intermediate tier of Panchayat Raj, which provides a link between the Gram Panchayat and the Zilla Parishad.

The strength of the Panchayat Samiti also depends on the population in the Samiti area. In the Panchayat Samiti, some members are directly elected. The Sarpanchs of Gram Panchayats are ex-officio members of the Panchayat Samitis. However, not all Sarpanchs of Gram Panchayats are members of the Panchayat Samiti at the same time.

The number varies from state to state and is rotated. This means that only the chairpersons of some Gram Panchayats in a Samiti area will be members of the Panchayat Samiti at a given time.

In some Panchayats, members of the legislative assembly and legislative councils, as well as members of parliament belonging to the Samiti area, are also co-opted as its members. The Presidents of Panchayat Samitis are indirectly elected - from the elected members of the Samiti.

Zilla Parishad

Zilla Parishad or District Panchayat is the highest level in the Panchayat Raj system.

This institution has some directly elected members, whose number varies from state to state, as it also depends on the population. The presidents of Panchayat Samitis are ex-officio members of the Zilla Parishads.

Members of Parliament, Legislative Assemblies, and Legislative Councils belonging to the districts are also nominated members of the Zilla Parishads.

The Chairpersons of Zilla Parishads, called President or Chairperson, are indirectly elected - by the elected members from among themselves. The Vice Chairperson is also elected in the same way. Zilla Parishad meetings are held monthly. Special meetings can also be arranged to discuss special issues. Subject committees are also formed.

Zilla Parishad meetings are held once a month. Special meetings can also be arranged to discuss special issues. Subject committees are also formed.

Panchayat Functions

Panchayat Raj institutions perform the functions mentioned in the state laws related to Panchayat Raj. Some states differentiate between mandatory and optional functions of Gram Panchayats, while other states do not show this distinction.

- Civic functions related to sanitation, public roads, street lighting, public toilets and latrines, primary health care, vaccinations, drinking water supply, construction of public wells, rural electrification, social health, and primary and adult education, etc. Functions of Gram Panchayats.
- They depend on the resources of the Panchayats. They may or may not perform functions such as planting trees alongside roads, establishing animal husbandry centers, conducting child and maternity welfare, and promoting agriculture.
- The scope of Gram Panchayat functions has expanded after the 73rd Amendment. Panchayats are now expected to perform important functions such as preparing their annual development plan, annual budget, disaster relief, removal of encroachments on government lands, and implementation and supervision of public distribution system activities.
- Selection of beneficiaries through Gram Sabhas, public distribution system, non-conventional energy sources, improved chulhas, and biogas plants have also been provided to Gram Panchayats in some states.

Functions of Panchayat Samiti

- Panchayat Samitis are central to development activities.
- They are led by Block Development Officers (BDOs).
- Some functions have been assigned to them, such as agriculture, land improvement, watershed development, social and farm forestry, technical and vocational education, etc.
- The second type of functions relates to the implementation of specific plans, schemes, or activities for which funds have been allocated. This means that the Panchayat Samiti will spend money only for a specific project. However, the selection of location or beneficiaries is available to the Panchayat Samiti.

Functions of Zilla Parishad

- The Zilla Parishad ranks Panchayats and Samitis within the district.
- It coordinates their activities and supervises their functioning.
- It integrates Samiti plans into the district plan for submission to the state government.
- The Zilla Parishad looks after district-wide development works.
- It undertakes schemes such as increasing agricultural production, exploiting groundwater resources, expanding rural education and distribution, promoting productive activities, and constructing roads and other public works.
- It also performs welfare functions such as disaster relief and scarcity, establishment of orphanages and old age homes, rest houses, and welfare of women and children.
- Additionally, Zilla Parishads perform functions assigned to them under centrally and state-sponsored programs. For example, Jawahar Rozgar Yojana is a major centrally sponsored scheme, for which money is directly given to districts to undertake employment-generating activities.

4.1.10 Summary

The concept of Panchayat Raj is not new to India. There are indications that this system has been functioning effectively in the governance of small units in countries like villages. This concept has been accepted by various constitution makers, and keeping in mind the objective of the Constituent Assembly, it has been given constitutional status under Part IX through the 73rd Amendment. Even after two decades of Panchayat Raj functioning constitutionally in India, there are many problems in its effective functioning.

It is not wrong to say that Panchayat Raj institutions have started to perform their governance role at the desired pace. But the problem primarily comes from the main stakeholders, i.e., the general public, at the present stage. This institution is now influenced by many bad practices such as proxy voting or apathy or the influence of political parties. It is very important to initiate reforms targeting the people in the beginning, which also includes empowering voters to understand their rights and duties.

Since the Panchayat has no power to levy taxes, its functioning also requires structural change, due to which it depends on the state government for financial self-reliance and loses its autonomy.

The role of political parties in the Panchayat Raj system is also very strong, so it is necessary to solve these problems as soon as possible. Therefore, it can be observed that Panchayat Raj institutions have worked hard to achieve their desired goal. But today there are many problems that need to be solved. In India, since most of the population belongs to rural areas, it is necessary to effectively manage the administration of such units.

4.1.11 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Write about the structure of Panchayats.
2. Write a brief note on the evolution of Panchayat Raj?
3. Explain the salient features of the 73rd Amendment Act 1992 in Panchayat Raj in India?

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COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

4.2.0 Objectives

We have discussed various aspects of communities in rural, tribal, and urban areas in the previous units. There are some complex problems that can be solved through community development programs. These programs should have a framework that takes accountability into consideration. After going through this unit, you will be able to define and explain what community development means; explain some community development programs in rural, tribal, and urban areas; and understand accountability and its importance in community development work.

Structure

4.2.0 Objectives

4.2.1 Introduction

4.2.2 Community Development

4.2.3 History of Community Development Programs

4.2.4 Community Development Programs

4.2.5 Summary

4.2.6 Self-Assessment Questions

4.2.1 Introduction

This unit on Community Development Programs and accountability is built on a complete understanding of what communities mean in social and economic contexts and how they are. They also gave us some idea about the problems these communities are facing. There are various ways to solve these problems. Community Development Programs initiated by the government or non-governmental agencies are attempts to solve the problems and concerns of communities. The concept of Community Development Programs focuses on community empowerment interventions where individuals are central and leaders lead. What is good for society, who makes decisions on these, who implements the programs, and how the programs are

What are the ways to supervise or implement, who makes decisions regarding funds and allocations, and to whom is accountability due? Such questions form the central focus. Community development programs determine success in achieving the goals of community development. Therefore, community development programs should be understood with their context, creation, and culmination dimensions. Contextual factors relate to the community's problems, issues, concerns, community background, and the community's strengths and weaknesses. Creation refers to specific programs aimed at addressing the community's problems and concerns with what objectives (values, basis, and goals), strategies, and mechanisms. The culminating program is related to the manner in which it reaches its goals

and with a clear identification of the individuals and processes that are accountable. These three C's are interrelated and very important for community development programs.

4.2.2 Community Development

Concept of Community and Development

Community Development has two words, Community and Development, both requiring some understanding. The concept of community has already been discussed in Unit I. We reiterate some of its definitions as "living in a limited geographical area, a social, religious, professional, or other group with feelings of unity and interdependence, sharing common characteristics or interests and feeling different in some way from the larger society in which it exists, for example, a business community; a community of scholars."

Communities refer to individuals limited to specific geographical areas and communities of interest. The concept of community has undergone tremendous changes over the last three centuries. We have primarily moved from an agricultural and rural society to an urban industrial society and now to a post-industrial society. In this latter period of de-industrialization, community life has declined, and there is a decline in civil society organizations. These indicate the slow decline of traditional family networks, increasing inequalities between groups of individuals, and the growth of institutions to meet people's needs, which until now the community itself met.

Development refers to progress or good change in a way that enhances the security, freedom, dignity, self-reliance, and self-development of groups of people. It encompasses the twin concepts of social and economic development.

Community Development can be defined as a process where people, in collaboration with government officials, make efforts to improve the economic, social, and cultural conditions of these communities to integrate them into the life of the nation and enable them to fully contribute to the nation's progress.

Community Development is a collaborative, facilitated process undertaken by individuals (community, organizations, or academic stakeholders) who share a common purpose of enhancing capacity that has a positive impact on the quality of life.

Community Development is the process of developing active and sustainable communities based on social justice and mutual respect. It involves influencing power structures to remove barriers that prevent people from participating in issues affecting their lives. Community activists facilitate people's participation in this process. They build connections between communities and with the development of broader policies and programs. Community Development expresses the values of fairness, equality, accountability, opportunity, choice, participation, reciprocity, and continuous learning. Education, enabling, and empowerment are central to Community Development.

Community Development is about building active and sustainable communities based on social justice and mutual respect. It involves changing power structures to remove barriers that prevent people from participating in issues affecting their lives. Community Development workers support individuals, groups, and organizations in this process based on specific values and commitments. Community Development works to strengthen face-to-face

communities to meet individuals' psychological needs, the practical needs of mutual care, and the political needs for participation and advocacy for rights and resources.

Approaches used in Community Development

Various approaches used in community development:

- Using an asset-based approach that builds on strengths and existing resources;
- Promoting inclusive processes that embrace community diversity; and
- Community ownership through collaboratively planned and led initiatives.

Rural Sociology and Rural Development

- Creating equitable conditions and outcomes for health and well-being
- Improving the health and well-being of the entire community
- Promoting sustainable community programs
- Fostering sustainable self-sufficiency for participating individuals
- Increasing individual worth, dignity, and value; and
- Raising awareness and addressing problems in the community.

Community Development Values

Community development has some inherent values. These can be stated as:

Social Justice - Enabling people to claim their human rights, meet their needs, and have greater control over decision-making processes that affect their lives.

Participation - Facilitating people's democratic involvement in issues affecting their lives based on full citizenship, autonomy, and shared power, skills, knowledge, and experience.

Equality - Challenging individuals' attitudes, and the practices of institutions and society that discriminate against and marginalize individuals.

Learning - Recognizing the skills, knowledge, and expertise that people collaborate and develop by taking action to address social, economic, political, and environmental issues.

Collaboration

Working together to identify and implement action based on mutual respect for diverse cultures and collaborations.

Assumptions in Community Development

There are some implicit assumptions in community development. These are:

- Individuals, groups, and local organizations in community areas share common interests.
- This commonality also encourages them to work together.
- The interests of different groups are not contradictory.

- The state is a superior institution that is impartial in resource allocation and does not further exacerbate inequalities through its policies.
- People's programs in communities are possible due to their common interests.

Community Development Workers are committed to:

- Challenge discrimination and oppressive practices in organizations, institutions, and communities.
- Develop practice and policy that protects the environment.
- Promote networking and connections between communities and organizations.
- Ensure access and choice for all groups and individuals in the community.
- Influence policy and programs from the community's perspective.
- Prioritize issues related to individuals experiencing poverty and social exclusion.
- Promote long-term and sustainable social change.
- Reverse inequality and imbalances in power relations in society.
- Support community-led collective action.

Difference between Community Development and Community Work

Community Development is best used to refer to a process or a way of doing something that involves the mobilization, participation, and involvement of local people on common issues that are important to them.

Community Work, on the other hand, is often used as a general term and refers to programs or activities delivered at the local level, where members of the community may not be active participants but merely consumers of services.

In India, we can say that all types of community practices go hand in hand - that is, providing basic services, advocating for people's rights, and promoting community-based approaches for self-development and increasing their share in development processes. There is a growing use of professional approaches, techniques, and strategies to enhance the capacities of communities to undertake community development programs aimed at bringing self-reliance, freedom, and dignity.

4.2.3 History of Community Development Programs

Community Development efforts have a long history dating back to pre-independence. There were programs like the Sevagram and Sarvodaya rural development experiments in Bombay State, the Firka Development Schemes of Madras State, and pilot projects in Etawah and Gorakhpur. These efforts were made for new methods, new incentives, and confidence to undertake development work. Some of these programs included rural reconstruction experiments with the ideas and support of nationalist thinkers and social reformers.

4.4 Community Development Programs

Many community development programs have been initiated by the government as well as by voluntary organizations. People's participation and development are central to all these

programs. We will now examine some such programs in rural, urban, and tribal areas. These are indicative only and attempt to provide insight into design and functional aspects.

Rural Community Development Programs

The Community Development Program derived its inspiration and strategy from earlier projects related to rural development in the 1920s and before Indian independence, as well as from international influences on community development projects developed in Great Britain and America. After independence, the first major rural development program launched in October 1952 in 55 Development Blocks had the following main objectives.

- a) To achieve the full development of material and human resources in rural areas.
- b) To develop local leadership and self-governing institutions.
- c) To raise the living standards of rural people by rapidly increasing food and agricultural production.
- d) To ensure a change in the mindset of individuals, instilling in them a mission of higher standards.

These objectives were to be achieved through rapid increases in food and agricultural production by strengthening resource development programs such as minor irrigation and soil conservation, improving the effectiveness of agricultural input supply systems, and providing agricultural extension services to farmers. It included a wide range of programs to develop agriculture, animal husbandry, rural industries, education, health, housing, training, allied employment, social welfare, and rural communication.

A project area was divided into three Development Blocks, each comprising 100 villages and a population of approximately 65,000. In areas where a full-scale project was not feasible, one or two Development Blocks were initially launched. Subsequently, CDP became a national program covering all rural areas of the country.

Organization

An institutional structure was specifically designed to undertake Community Development Projects. The institutional structure existed at the central, state, district, and block levels.

In September 1956, a new Ministry for Community Development was created. Then the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development took responsibility for the country's overall programs. Currently, centrally sponsored programs are part of the overall Ministry of Rural Development. From a centrally sponsored program, it became a state-sponsored program in 1969.

Evaluation

The Community Development Program was evaluated by a committee headed by Balwantrai Mehta, which recommended a three-tier system of local governments known as Panchayati Raj. Gram Panchayats should be established at the grassroots or village level, Panchayats at the middle or block level, and Zilla Parishads at the apex or district level. It recommended administrative decentralization.

There will be control over elected bodies.

The three-tier structure of Panchayati Raj institutions came into existence in January 1958. These objectives were later incorporated into the 73rd Amendment of the Indian Constitution, which ensured democratic decentralization through the Panchayati Raj system.

Criticisms of CDP

- It was not a people's program.
- It followed a blueprint approach to rural development.
- It employed a large army of uncoordinated, untrained extension workers.
- Lack of functional responsibility at the block level led to considerable confusion and inter-departmental jealousy.

Shifted towards specific programs focusing on agricultural development strategies (in the new agricultural strategy) - focuses on specific areas. This changed the nature of community involvement in the program. A target approach was adopted - identifying, training, and developing these became the responsibility of development officers and research scientists.

Other Programs and Community Component

With the advent of the program, there was a change in these programs, which targeted specific groups, focusing rural development on asset creation or wage employment. Later, in the Integrated Rural Development Program launched in the Sixth Plan, asset creation took a cluster-oriented approach, which emphasized creating groups for participation and management. Group approaches were focused on all programs related to rural development dealing with forestry (Joint Forest Management), watershed, National Rural Health Mission, or Elementary Education, along with other poverty eradication programs and the Midday Meal Scheme (mother committees are formed). Participatory management was emphasized in the above programs with the mandatory requirement of neighborhood groups. DWCRA (Development of Women and

Children in Rural Areas) played a key role in popularizing the self-help group concept, and it has now become a widespread phenomenon for community action and development in government-initiated and voluntary organization-initiated programs. In some states, the nature and extent of community participation have been significant in bringing about the necessary change.

With the emphasis on Panchayats as vehicles for program implementation, community ownership of programs became a formal refrain. In many cases, even though Panchayats did not truly have sufficient funds, allocations were received late in the financial year. Here, there is always a risk that local caste and class biases will enter the fray and perpetuate the status quo.

Government programs after Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY), which focused on establishing a large number of micro-enterprises in rural areas. It relied on the capacity of the poor in each area and land-based and other capacities for sustainable income generation. This program used the concept of groups that could be used to build community-led programs.

Self-Help Groups (SHGs) formed under SGSY may consist of 10-20 members, and in the case of minor irrigation, and in disabled and difficult areas, i.e., hilly, desert, and sparsely populated areas, this number is at least five. SHGs should also be taken from the BPL list approved by the Gram Sabha. SHGs broadly go through a three-stage evolution: group formation, capital formation through revolving fund, and undertaking economic activities for skill development and income generation.

There are limitations to making programs true community-based development programs. There are many other programs for village and small-scale organizations, including some special schemes for Scheduled Castes and Tribes to promote self-employment in rural areas, which mainly rely on empowering rural communities and forming self-help groups to undertake economic activities.

Wage employment programs like Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana, Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana, and Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act enabled 100 days of employment. They do not themselves establish community buildings or form groups. However, due to NGO or activist involvement, these programs are also taking the form of movements for community action and development - seeking their rightful share in government-promoted employment schemes.

Other recent programs related to community development: Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana, Rajiv Gandhi Grameen Vidyutikaran Yojana, Rashtriya Krishi Vikas Yojana, Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana, Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana, National Rural Livelihood Mission, Antyodaya Anna Yojana, National Food Security Mission.

Deen Dayal Upadhyaya Gram Jyoti Yojana, Indira Awaas Yojana, Janani Suraksha Yojana, Members of Parliament Local Area Development Scheme. National Literacy Mission and Midday Meal Scheme are other important community development programs under implementation.

4.5 Summary

We have discussed the concept of community development as a process facilitated by external agencies, with individuals and their development as the central focus. In community development, the social worker is concerned with aspects related to social justice, equity, self-reliance, and participation. Community leadership is encouraged.

We have explored the concept of accountability in the sense of accountability to people, donor agencies, government organizations, and NGO partners. There is a need for proper accountability systems so that responsibility is clearly stated and individuals are accountable for their work. Community participation is key to accountability.

We have explored various community development programs in rural, tribal, and urban areas in some detail. There are programs led by people and those motivated by government and NGOs. There is a need to integrate all these programs, especially for poverty eradication. We can learn from the success of programs and transfer these to many other programs.

4.2.6 Self-Assessment Questions

1. What do you understand by the term community development?
2. Discuss the basic assumptions of community development programs in India.

3. Critically analyze community development programs in India.

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RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

4.3.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to explain rural development as a cyclical process, the main strategies related to rural development, policies related to rural development, and other strategies that promote rural development.

Structure

4.3.1 Introduction

4.3.2 Multi-Purpose Strategy

4.3.3 Rural Development as a Cyclical Process

4.3.4 Main Strategies of Rural Development

4.3.5 Policies Related to Rural Development

4.3.6 Other Strategies Promoting Rural Development

4.3.7

4.3.8 Self-Assessment Questions

4.3.1 Introduction

Strategies related to rural development are based on rural development policies. After the country gained independence, improvements were brought about in these strategies. These are stated as follows: (Chapter III. Rural Development Policies and Strategies in India, nd.).

4.3.2 Multi-Purpose Strategy

The rural development policy in the country began with a multi-purpose approach. The Community Development Program (CDP) was launched in 1952. Its main objective was to promote the development of physical and human resources through the assistance and cooperation available from individuals and the state. It was considered an educational and institutional process. Therefore, it also aimed to bring about changes in practices and policies, which proved to be obstacles in achieving the desired goals.

The main objective of social and economic development. The rationale of the policy is that all elements are interconnected. The activities of CDP included agriculture, animal husbandry, minor irrigation, minor resources, cooperation, village and small-scale industries, health and hygiene, communication, housing, and so on. Therefore, it can be stated that the primary objectives of the multi-purpose approach were the development of employment and livelihood opportunities.

Growth-Oriented Strategy

The growth-oriented approach was based on rural individuals. Although rural individuals live in poverty and backward conditions, they have innovative ideas and can make intelligent decisions. They were provided with opportunities and facilities to participate in timely decision-making processes. The main goal of rural individuals is to improve their living conditions, and to achieve this goal, they seek opportunities that support production and income. Therefore, growth-oriented approaches suggest the implementation of opportunities that effectively promote the growth of individuals. The agricultural sector is the main area for production and livelihood opportunities for rural individuals. Therefore, programs like the Intensive Agricultural District Program (IADP), Intensive Cattle Development Program (ICDP), and High-Yielding Varieties Program (HYVP) were implemented. This led to the Green Revolution. However, this approach helped rich farmers. On the other hand, small farmers remained in backward conditions.

Target Group Strategy

In the target group approach, a specific group is undertaken and researched. Generally, in this context, research is conducted on approaches related to rural development. Therefore, the conditions of small and marginal farmers, as well as rich farmers, can be analyzed. The condition of small and marginal farmers is either improving or not. They live in poverty and backward conditions, and therefore, they do not know about the necessary modern and innovative approaches and techniques to increase production. Instead, they use traditional agricultural methods and techniques in the production process. On the other hand, rich farmers use scientific and modern methods to increase production. It was studied that farmers are enrolling in training centers and educational institutions to increase their knowledge and gain understanding of scientific, modern, and innovative methods and practices. Antyodaya schemes are a target approach. This

The approach has taken on a client-oriented design, and the ultimate goal is to transfer the responsibilities of planning and development to the clients.

Area Development Strategy

Under the area development approach, priority was given to the development of backward areas. This approach assumes that growth centers have a geographical impact, and areas that are deficient in resources or necessary infrastructure have not been adequately developed. The main programs formulated under this approach include the Drought Prone Area Program (DPAP), Tribal Area Development Program (TADP), Command Area Development Program (CADP), Hill Area Development Program, etc. The tribal population is scattered. They mostly live in hilly and plateau areas. They depend on natural environmental conditions for their survival. Therefore, it is very important to implement measures and formulate strategies that focus on the development of tribal areas. To achieve the desired results, it is necessary to allocate resources appropriately, thereby promoting the welfare of individuals in backward areas.

Regional Planning Strategy

The regional planning approach is an approach that demands the implementation of special programs in their respective regions, the stimulation of production plans, production activities, and the supply of basic necessities for the rural population. To achieve these

objectives, programs and strategies must be rural-oriented. In the Fifth Five-Year Plan, multi-level planning was a very individually focused plan. Along with multi-level planning, it is very important for individuals to have an understanding of techno-economic, socio-political, and administrative functions. This clearly indicates that when improvements need to be made or changes need to be brought about, emphasis should be placed on the implementation of modern and innovative methods. In some areas, when there is a lack of infrastructure and resources, it leads to obstacles in achieving the desired goals. On the other hand, efforts should be analyzed and plans should be implemented in a timely manner to promote the welfare and well-being of rural people.

Integrated or Holistic Strategy

An integrated or holistic approach has been formulated considering the doctrine that development should be holistic. There is integration in areas, regions, physical facilities, education, production opportunities, human resources, training, skill development programs, and the development of the overall living standards of rural individuals. Relationships are established between all programs such as infrastructure development programs, human resource development programs, sector-wise development programs, and social welfare programs. Others are influenced through the connections of various programs. The integrated approach combines all the characteristics of previous approaches and is formulated to achieve the goals and objectives of growth, welfare, equity, and community participation. This model takes a very comprehensive but holistic view of the major problems occurring in rural areas, such as poverty, unemployment, and illiteracy, and attempts to address the physical, economic, technological, social, motivational, and political aspects of these problems. It is believed that the objectives of this approach will be fulfilled by encouraging community participation in the development process with government cooperation. The poverty alleviation programs launched, namely the IRD program, the National Rural Employment Program, and training for rural youth for self-employment, were intended to follow this standard.

Participatory Strategy

In the last two decades, various new approaches such as top-down planning, bottom-up planning, micro-level planning, and multi-level planning have been implemented to involve individuals in this development process. As the name suggests, the participatory approach is related to the involvement of individuals in the formulation of strategies and policies. In the Tenth Five-Year Plan, the government formulated a participatory strategy to promote the development of rural areas. It was arranged to provide social and economic opportunities to individuals and communities by encouraging their participation in decision-making processes. In decision-making processes, individuals should analyze alternatives and implement the most effective and beneficial ones. When individuals participate in decision-making processes, they must apply rational and logical thinking. Rural individuals are well aware of opportunities that improve their living conditions.

4.3.3 Rural Development as a Cyclical Process

Four stages can be found in all types of development processes. From an individual's cycle to the activities of a national or international development organization, one can also find them at various levels. According to Gibo (1992), to properly organize the development process, they generally repeat many times, which includes the following five stages of the rural development program:

1. Inquiry: Obtaining detailed and valid information about the target community (Rural Rapid Appraisal (RRA) and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PPR) tools have been found to be effective in achieving this recently).
2. Planning: Based on the information obtained from the inquiry. Stakeholders (interested parties), local change agents, representatives of rural people, and concerned agency officials should be stakeholders in this.
3. Implementation: The time for action by all concerned as stakeholders in a systematic manner to achieve the stated objectives of the intervention.
4. Adjustment: Necessary institutionalization and modification of intervention results.

Evaluation: Appropriate weight should be given to monitor and review the process in line with changes, and finally, to provide the basis for further action and to what extent the determined objectives have been achieved.

4.3.4 Main Strategies of Rural Development

The rural development approach is a systematic, holistic, and reliable tool, which is intended to bring about the necessary rural change. The approach related to rural development is estimated to yield results; therefore, it has been tested in some situations before being introduced in macro settings and is effective. This may also be because it was developed based on working experience. A review of various rural development programs and policies in many developing countries reveals four general approaches to rural development.

These are;

1. Growth-Oriented Approach
2. Welfare-Oriented Approach
3. Intensive Strategy
4. Integrated or Holistic Strategy

1. Growth-Oriented Approach

This is based on the philosophy that rural people, like other people, are rational decision-makers, and when given adequate opportunity and a proper environment, they will strive to increase their income. In this approach, the role of the state is to create physical facilities and provide a conducive environment to promote the growth of rural institutions. The key assumption of this approach is that the benefits of increased production will gradually 'trickle down' to the poor. The control and coordination of private and public agency activities are mainly done through market mechanisms. However, this model failed to make any dent in the primary problems of poverty, unemployment, and inequality in many developing countries and was rejected.

2. Welfare-Oriented Approach

This attempts to promote the welfare of the general rural population and especially the rural poor through various programs. The primary means used in this approach are the free allocation/distribution of goods, services, and civic amenities in rural areas.

The key assumptions of this approach are that people are not capable of recognizing and solving their problems, and government experts can recognize their needs and meet them with the financial and administrative resources available in the government. The role of the passive recipient is the role of the villagers. This approach has a paternalistic attitude. The effectiveness of programs is determined by the quantity of goods, services, and civic amenities distributed. Welfare-oriented programs show a mixed picture; rural poor have benefited significantly from some programs in some areas, but not in all areas. This approach has two main divisions: a) it supports dependence b) it requires resources beyond government resources.

3. Responsive Approach

This is intended to help rural people help themselves through their own organizations and other self-help systems. Its concern is to respond to the needs felt by rural people. The role of the government is to facilitate the self-help efforts of rural people by providing technologies and resources that are not locally available. The key assumption of this approach is that the rural poor can recognize their problems and will abandon their traditional practices and cycles if given minimum assistance. Community participation and control in project activities are the primary performance indicators of this approach. Many voluntary organizations also follow this approach.

4. Integrated or Holistic Strategy

It is designed to achieve the goals of growth, welfare, equity, and community participation simultaneously. This example takes a very comprehensive but holistic view of the primary problems of poverty, unemployment, and inequality and attempts to address the physical, economic, technological, social, motivational, and political aspects of these problems. It is believed that the objectives of this approach will be fulfilled by encouraging community participation in the development process with government cooperation. The poverty alleviation programs launched, namely the IRD program, the National Rural Employment Program, and training for rural youth for self-employment, were intended to follow this standard.

The multiple objectives of this strategy seek to be achieved by enhancing the community's capacity to participate in development in partnership with the government. The critical underlying assumption in this approach is that the government can restructure social power relations and centralized bureaucracies can learn to share power with community groups. The successful implementation of this strategy requires complex decentralized matrix structures, permanent mechanisms for vertical and lateral integration, a combination of expert and general skills, institutional leadership, social intervention capacity, and systems management. Due to the weak institutional structure of developing countries, many of the prerequisites discussed earlier for the successful implementation of this strategy are absent. There is very little hope that this model will yield the desired results.

4.3.5 Policies Related to Rural Development

The policies adopted by many developing countries for rural development are: Community Development, Agricultural Extension, Cooperatives, Integrated Rural Development.

Community Development

Community development is a relatively new concept that gained currency after the Second World War. It was formulated due to the necessity of taking people into account, making the

government more broad-based, and ensuring the enlightened participation of people in the affairs of the country. Community Development deals with common things and advanced individuals. It attempts to enlist the power, imagination, and initiative of the people to build the nation.

Some define it as a method of working with individuals aimed at activating the community towards self-development. It aims to bring about a change in attitudes and behaviors towards the development of individual community members. By its nature, it does not impose solutions that destroy the fabric of society; its goal is to make people recognize their situation so that they take action of their own volition.

Community Development Objectives

A community development program can be undertaken in rural and urban areas with the same general objective. It is primarily an activity designed to create improved living conditions and benefit the entire community. To achieve this goal, it requires the interest and capacity of community members.

4.3.6 Other Strategies Promoting Rural Development

Other important strategies aimed at promoting rural development are stated as follows: (Chapter 4. Effective Policies for Rural Development, nd.).

Anti-Poverty Measures

Poverty is considered one of the major problems faced by rural people. Conditions of poverty are characterized by a lack of resources, due to which individuals face problems even in fulfilling their basic needs such as food, clothing, and shelter. The eradication of poverty conditions is given top priority with the aim of promoting effective living. An increase in rural poverty has been observed with the increase in national poverty (Rural Development Strategy, nd.). In the development and progress of rural development activities, primarily for poverty eradication, it is necessary for individuals to adequately conduct an analysis of poverty levels.

Furthermore, it is also necessary to consider how poverty levels are negatively impacting the lives of individuals. Governments, organizations, and other agencies are focusing on the problem of poverty and implementing programs and measures to eradicate it. The commitment of these organizations and agencies, collecting knowledge applicable to other sectors, and training human resources are some key measures to be considered. Training human resources is considered an indispensable method to achieve the desired goals.

Food Production

There are cases of project implementation in terms of developing food areas. To reduce the problem of malnutrition and improve food supply, a comprehensive approach needs to be implemented. It is necessary to establish a system for transmitting lessons to other rural communities and to implement the development of agricultural practices. To enhance food production, it is clear that measures to improve agricultural productivity should be put into practice. One of the important measures to enhance agricultural productivity is by using modern and innovative methods, scientific approaches, and technologies. Farmers and agricultural laborers are enrolled in training centers and also pursue educational programs,

which can raise awareness among them in terms of these areas. Additionally, a system for transmitting lessons from model projects to other areas should also be established. To achieve the desired goals, there should be cooperation between production plans and agricultural development plans. The important role of agriculture in reducing rural poverty and malnutrition was recognized in the 2008 World Development Report (Sector Policies in Agriculture and Rural Development, 2008).

Natural Environment Protection

Rural individuals largely depend on natural environmental conditions to meet most of their daily needs and requirements. They generally experience water scarcity in their homes. Water is considered a basic necessity and therefore, they obtain it from nearby wells and water sources. Rural individuals, in some cases, also rely on natural environmental conditions to treat their injuries and illnesses. They obtain herbs and medicinal plants from forests. Another important benefit of forests is that individuals obtain fruits and vegetables to meet their nutritional needs. Additionally, promoting efficient forest resource utilization and a combination of alternative methods such as biogas and cow dung usage is also necessary. As in rural households, individuals typically use mud stoves and they need wood obtained from forests. Therefore, after acquiring information in terms of these aspects, it is crucial for rural individuals to formulate actions in terms of natural environment protection. Efforts to promote local or indigenous farming systems, biodiversity conservation, food security, and raising awareness regarding natural landscape and cultural heritage are important aspects in promoting the livelihood security and sustainable development of rural individuals (Participatory and Negotiated Territorial Development, 2005).

Reconstruction Support

The term 'reconstruction' primarily refers to the construction of houses, shelters, schools, training centers, hospitals, medical centers, market places, and other public spaces. These areas are important not only for the effective growth and development of individuals but also for the entire community. When schools, educational institutions, and training centers are established, individuals recognize the importance of education and enhance their educational skills. The availability of healthcare and medical centers helps individuals take care of their health and well-being. Market places enable individuals to make purchases of various goods. Public spaces refer to places visited by people. These include parks, playgrounds, theaters, religious places, etc. Apart from the construction of these places,

In rural communities, infrastructure and civic amenities need to be developed appropriately. Policies should be formulated so that households do not experience water and electricity shortages. Water, electricity, and lighting facilities in homes are considered most important, enabling individuals to carry out their tasks and effectively maintain their living conditions.

Administrative Capabilities

Administrative capabilities in rural communities, administrative functions, and law and order practices need to be managed in an appropriate manner. Most developing countries are in the process of decentralization. It is crucial for local administrative officials to possess skills and talent, especially in terms of policy formulation in multi-sectoral local development and industrial development including agriculture and agricultural practices. Enhancing the capacity of local administrative officials is considered a prominent area and is implemented through mutual cooperation with governments. Administrative functions cannot be performed

alone. When there is a need to formulate administrative and managerial policies, it is necessary for governments, organizations, and agencies to work with cooperation and integration. Furthermore, the dispatch of policy advisors to central governments is also considered very important. The reason is that sending individuals to a number of local governments should come into effect through donor agencies. Administrative capabilities also focus on maintaining law and order. Women and girls should be provided equal rights and opportunities. There should be no discrimination among individuals based on factors such as gender, caste, religion, race, religion, ethnicity, age, and socio-economic background.

4.3.7

The primary objective of gaining an understanding in terms of rural development policies and strategies is to identify their effective contribution towards the effective development and progress of rural communities. Formulating information in terms of rural development objectives is the first and foremost aspect. These are, improvement of economic capabilities, improvement of human capabilities, improvement of protection capabilities, and improvement of political capabilities. The components of rural development policy are environmental conditions, environmental settings, technology, infrastructure, self-reliance, law and order, education, training programs, distributive justice, and medical and healthcare. When rural development policies are initiated, the main objective is to ensure that the components are considered in the correct manner.

The main objective of the policies is to promote the development of various areas. These include education, training programs, employment opportunities, skill development programs, technology, modern and innovative methods, management and administration, and housing.

4.3.8 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Write a brief note on the multi-purpose strategy of rural development as a cyclical process.
2. Explain the main strategies related to rural development.
3. Write a note on other strategies that promote

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RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

4.4.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to explain Rural Development Programs (RDP), Integrated Rural Development Program (IRBD), objectives of rural area development, and components of rural development policy.

Structure

4.4.1 Introduction

4.4.2 Rural Development Programs (RDP)

4.4.3 Integrated Rural Development Program (IRBD)

4.4.4 Objectives of Rural Area Development

4.4.5 Components of Rural Development Policy

4.4.6

4.4.7 Self-Assessment Questions

4.4.1 Introduction

When one researches the concept of rural development, it refers to the overall development of rural communities. It takes into account many aspects such as agriculture and allied activities, village and cottage industries, agricultural practices, educational system, training centers, healthcare and medical facilities, environmental conditions, housing, infrastructure, technology, skill development opportunities for individuals, administration and management practices, employment opportunities, and human resource development. When individuals research factors that promote the backwardness of rural communities, it is very important for them to consider measures, policies, and programs that promote the development of all the above-mentioned aspects. In rural communities, individuals largely face problems such as poverty, illiteracy, and unemployment. So, measures and policies should also prioritize the alleviation of these problems.

The development of rural societies is the ultimate result of transactions between physical, technological, economic, socio-cultural, and institutional factors. Policies and strategies should be formulated primarily to bring about improvements in the living conditions of individuals belonging to the underprivileged, marginalized, and socio-economically backward sections of society. To promote the development of rural areas, it is necessary to indicate the division between agricultural, social, administrative, behavioral, and engineering sciences. When implementing policies, methods, strategies, and approaches aimed at rural development, individuals should be made aware of the deficient areas and challenges faced by rural individuals. It is necessary for organizations and agencies to work with mutual cooperation and integration to achieve the desired goals and objectives. Many developing

countries are working effectively for the development of rural communities and have achieved significant results.

4.4.2 Rural Development Programs (RDP)

As a development strategy, RDP differs from both land reforms and the idea of making cheap institutional credit available to cultivators. RDP emerged from a production approach to rural development. Its objective is to provide a significant increase in agricultural production and improve basic services, which will ultimately lead to a transformation in the social and economic life of the village.

Rural Development in India

The rural economy is an integral part of the urban economy, the overall Indian economy. Any discussion about overall development without rural development in a country where three-quarters of the people, especially those below the poverty line, live in rural areas.

Poverty eradication is one of the guiding principles of the planning process in India. This can be proved by the fact that anti-poverty programs were internalized (especially in the Ninth Five Year Plan. Programs exist.

4.4.3 Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP)

Introduced for the first time in 1978-79, IRDP assisted the rural poor in the form of subsidy and bank credit for productive employment opportunities through successive plan periods. Subsequently, Training for Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM), Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA), Supply of Improved Tool Kits to Rural Artisans (SITRA), and Ganga Kalyan Yojana (GKY) were introduced as sub-programs of IRDP to meet the specific needs of the rural population.

Important components of the anti-poverty strategy, wage employment programs attempted to achieve multiple objectives. They provide employment opportunities not only during lean agricultural seasons but also during floods, droughts, and other natural calamities.

This program creates rural infrastructure, which supports more economic activity. These programs increase pressure on market wage rates by attracting people to public works programs, thereby reducing the supply of labor and increasing the demand for labor. This includes the National Rural Employment Program (NREP) and the Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Program (RLEGP), which were initially part of the Sixth and Seventh Five Year Plans.

Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS)

EAS was launched in October 1993 covering 1,778 drought-prone, desert, tribal, and hilly areas. Later, it was extended to all blocks in 1997-98. EAS was designed to provide employment in the form of manual work during the lean agricultural season. It is expected that the works undertaken under this program will lead to the creation of durable economic and social infrastructure and meet the needs of the people.

Food for Work Program

The Food for Work Program was launched in 2000-01 as part of the Employment Assurance Scheme in eight notified drought-affected states such as Chhattisgarh, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Maharashtra, and Uttaranchal. This program aims to provide food through wage employment. Food grains are supplied free of cost to the states. However, the lifting of food grains for this scheme from Food Corporation of India (FCI) godowns has been slow.

Rural Housing

Launched in 1985-86, the main program aims to provide free housing to families in rural areas, targeting Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and liberated bonded laborers. The rural housing program certainly enabled many BPL (Below Poverty Line) families to obtain pucca houses. Coverage of beneficiaries is limited due to resource constraints.

Integrated Awas Yojana (SAY) is undertaking in 25 blocks to ensure the combination of houses, safe drinking water, sanitation, and common drainage facilities.

Housing and Urban Development Corporation (HUDCO) has expanded its activities to rural areas, providing loans at concessional interest rates for the construction of houses for economically weaker sections and low-income group families.

Social Security Programs

Democratic decentralization and centrally supported social assistance programs were two major government programs in the 1990s. The National Social Assistance Program (NSAP), launched in August 1995, represents an important step towards the fulfillment of state policy guidelines.

NSAP has three components: a) National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS), b) National Family Benefit Scheme (NFBS), c) National Maternity Benefit Scheme (NMBS). NSAP is a centrally sponsored program that aims to ensure a minimum national standard of social assistance beyond the assistance provided by states from their own resources. NOAPS provides a monthly pension of Rs. 75 to indigent BPL individuals aged 65 and above.

NFBS provides Rs. 10,000 to BPL families if the breadwinner dies. NMBS provides Rs. 500 to pregnant women to support their nutrition intake. Along with NSAP, the Annapurna scheme was launched from April 2000 to provide food security to senior citizens eligible for pension under NOAPS, but it could not be obtained due to budget constraints.

Land Reforms

In an agrarian economy, the structure of land ownership is crucial for the well-being of the people. The government has worked to change the land ownership pattern, undertaking some measures such as the abolition of intermediaries, abolition of zamindari, ceiling laws, security for tenants, consolidation of landholdings, and prohibition of tenancy. Furthermore, a land record system is a prerequisite for an effective land reform program.

In 1987-88, a centrally sponsored scheme for Strengthening Revenue Administration and Updating Land Records (SRA & ULR) was introduced in Orissa and Bihar.

4.4.4 Objectives of Rural Area Development

When gaining an understanding of rural development policies and strategies, it is very important to gain an effective understanding of the areas in rural communities that are in a backward and underdeveloped state and need improvement. When individuals are involved in the implementation of strategies and policies, they should be aware of the main objectives of rural individuals. These are stated as follows: (Chapter 4. Effective Policies for Rural Development, nd.).

Improvement of Economic Capabilities

To bring about improvements in living conditions and overall quality of life, it is necessary to create a source of income. In rural areas, agriculture and agricultural practices are stated as the main occupations of individuals. Apart from these, they are engaged in handicraft production and manufacturing, silk weaving, pottery making, and so on. Therefore, it can be said that employment opportunities and participation in occupations are major objectives not only for individuals living in urban communities but also for rural individuals. In the agricultural sector, strategies should focus on bringing about improvements in agricultural productivity and marketing of agricultural products. It is very important for farmers and agricultural laborers to implement operational, innovative, and scientific methods to enhance production. Agricultural income can be increased by implementing two comprehensive methods. These are, stabilizing the prices of agricultural products and preventing intermediary exploitation, and improving agricultural productivity and infrastructure.

To bring about improvements in agricultural productivity, individuals engage in multi-crop production by using modern agricultural methods. The introduction of modern irrigation methods is considered one of the strategies to improve agricultural infrastructure. The main aspects to be considered for improving agricultural productivity are the development of small irrigation systems, i.e., the construction of irrigation systems and the development of water user associations; capacity building for agricultural extension workers, i.e., improvement of cultivation methods, improvements in crop and vegetable production, and agroforestry: empowerment of community-based activities for agriculture, i.e., the organization of shipping and distributary cooperatives and rice banks, and integrated rural and agricultural development, i.e., development of small-scale irrigation, capacity building for agricultural laborers, and integrated projects with community strengthening - based activities for agriculture. Improvements made in these sectors will provide effective contribution in enhancing productivity and profitability for those engaged in agriculture and agricultural practices.

Improvement of Human Capabilities

When the improvement of human capabilities is considered, the focus is on one's health conditions and educational levels. In rural communities, the health conditions of individuals are considered to be in a weak state.

When individuals face health problems or illnesses, they will definitely face problems in participating in any work or activities. Therefore, there is a need to promote improvements in rural areas, and bringing about development in healthcare and medical facilities is considered very important. In rural areas, healthcare and medical centers are not in a well-developed state. In many cases, individuals have to migrate to urban areas to receive medical treatment. When elderly or other individuals in the family are ill, other family members have to leave their work and take care of the sick members. Therefore, due to this, they experience a

decline in productivity. Therefore, development of medical and healthcare centers is crucial for rural development.

To increase income, it is very important to bring about improvements in educational standards. Literacy skills enable individuals to read manuals on business technologies and processes, thereby leading to an increase in business productivity. When individuals possess basic literacy skills, they can easily obtain information regarding policies, measures, and programs that lead to their progress. Furthermore, they can also carry out various tasks and activities such as implementing household responsibilities, healthcare, shelter and sanitation, and development of roads in an appropriate manner. When they are engaged in production programs, they can obtain sufficient information regarding marketing expenses and policies and can increase their productivity and profitability. In rural areas, the educational system is not in a well-developed state, and the main reason for this is insufficient financial resources. To bring about improvements in educational standards in rural areas, it is necessary to appoint qualified and competent teachers, improve teaching-learning methods and teaching expenses, improve infrastructure, and improve the overall school environment.

Improvement of Protection Capabilities

Protection capabilities refer to the ability of individuals to protect themselves from various problems and difficulties. These are particularly formed as obstacles to their progress. These problems include poverty, lack of sanitation, illiteracy, unemployment, natural calamities, and crimes and violence. In rural

In rural societies, when natural calamities and disasters occur, rural individuals have to experience very personal hardships. Land cultivated by hand, crops, and earthquakes are easily damaged. Rural individuals living in poverty do not have sufficient resources to continue their living conditions adequately. Therefore, it is very important for them to know about the necessary measures and strategies to protect natural environmental conditions and their progress. Protection of forests is effective not only for the alleviation of natural calamities like floods but also for protecting the land from soil erosion in the upper parts and for creating awareness regarding financial management, development, and progress.

Rural people should recognize the importance of education. It is very important for them to enroll in educational institutions and training centers and to acquire information regarding various strategies and concepts. Obtaining education regarding various strategies and concepts helps individuals to distinguish between appropriate and inappropriate things, to provide solutions to various problems, to strive for productive and income opportunities, and to continue their living conditions in an appropriate manner. To eradicate illiteracy, adult education centers have been established in rural areas to provide training to adults. These methods help improve their educational skills, even if they have never attended school before or have dropped out. Programs and measures are implemented with the aim of promoting the welfare of rural individuals. These measures focus on major areas such as agriculture and agricultural practices, education and training opportunities, productive opportunities, skill development, law and order, management and administration, infrastructure development, civic amenities development, environmental protection methods, and so on. Forward.

Improvement of Political Capabilities

Political capabilities refer to the abilities that facilitate individuals' participation in policy formulation and decision-making on a free and democratic basis in situations where human rights are given importance. The main objective of rural development policies is to formulate development plans suitable for various situations in rural areas and to implement projects through community participation. It responds quickly to local needs and requirements and works with integration and cooperation with governments. For this reason, decentralization is considered an important aspect of local community development. Appropriate decentralization measures are necessary in rural development activities. There are improvements in the ability of central governments to implement major activities and in laws and financial management for decentralization. Rural development projects should be in line with local government development plans. If there are differences, obstacles will arise in achieving the desired goals.

Based on local conditions, improvements in the administrative capabilities of local governments are necessary for policy formulation and stability. Including local aspirations in the formulation of development plans, community participation, and utilization of existing local resources are necessary. Administrative officials involved in the implementation of management and administrative functions should possess the necessary skills and abilities. One of the main aspects is that individuals should have an understanding of the areas where they are deficient and need improvement. The development of political capabilities in rural individuals also focuses on their participation in decision-making processes and other political activities. Administrators and leaders should improve their management and leadership capabilities. Individuals responsible for administrative and managerial functions should continuously enhance their skills and abilities. To bring about improvements in skills and abilities, training opportunities are provided. The location of training centers for administration, management, and leadership skills is mostly in larger cities.

4.4.5 Components of Rural Development Policy

The policies formulated to bring about rural development need to include the following components:

Environmental Conditions - The first component is the individual and the immediate environment. Individuals need to develop skills and abilities to effectively utilize the resources provided by natural environmental conditions. Furthermore, individuals need to have an understanding of the various strategies and policies necessary for environmental protection. Preventing various types of pollution is considered most important. Rural people need to know about various strategies and methods to keep water resources and environmental conditions clean. In addition, they need to know about effectively utilizing resources to improve living conditions.

Environmental Settings - The second component focuses on environmental settings. Ecological settings refer to the biophysical characteristics at multiple scales that have a strong influence on the structure, composition, and function of a long-term established ecosystem and are used to describe and classify its environment (Conservation Assessment and Priority System, nd.). The main aspects to be considered in terms of environmental settings are moisture, soil depth, temperature, solar radiation, and radiation that defines environmental characteristics (Conservation Assessment and Priority System, nd.). It is very important for

rural individuals to have adequate information regarding these characteristics, especially when they are engaged in agriculture and agricultural practices.

Technology - The third component in rural development is the use of technology. Rural people should recognize the importance of technology. They know that by using technological methods, their work and activities will be manageable. In the current situation, they are using technological methods in the agricultural sector, agricultural practices, and the production and manufacturing of goods. Along with using technological knowledge in the implementation of works and activities, individuals are also using it in the form of mobile phones and computers to enhance their knowledge and information. Elderly people and homemakers generally use this for entertainment and recreational purposes.

Infrastructure - Development of infrastructure is an integral part of rural area development. The infrastructure that needs to be developed in rural areas includes roads, transportation, communications, electricity supply, water supply, public services, markets, and telecommunications. In rural households, individuals experience a shortage of electricity supply and water supply. They obtain water from nearby wells or water sources. Road and transportation methods are not in a well-developed state, and this causes problems for individuals in moving from one place to another. Therefore, development in infrastructure is an integral part of rural development.

Self-Reliance - When focusing on rural development, the development of individuals is considered most important. Rural people are mostly illiterate and lack awareness. They live in poverty and backward conditions and have traditional attitudes and perspectives. Their lives largely depend on their attitudes and perspectives. To promote their progress, it is necessary to promote self-reliance among individuals. This can be achieved through the integration of social, political, cultural, economic, and religious (Chapter III. Rural Development Policies and Strategies in India, nd.) resources, local activities, and individuals' participation in various works and activities.

Law and Order - In rural areas, the establishment of law and order is experienced by individuals to carry out works and activities in accordance with rules and policies. Law and order refers to the administration of peace and order, which is brought into effect for citizens to obey the law of the land (Chapter III. District and Order of Law and Order Administration, nd.). For example, there is a prevalence of discriminatory treatment and crime and violence in rural areas. Through the implementation of law and order, individuals who are guilty are subjected to corrective actions. Therefore, the main objective of law and order is to ensure that individuals, women, and men have equal rights and opportunities. Furthermore, there should be no discrimination based on factors such as caste, religion, race, religion, ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic background. Individuals should develop characteristics of morality and ethics within themselves that lead to their own progress and the progress of the entire society.

Education - Education is considered the main means by which individuals progress in all fields and improve their overall quality of life. The educational system in rural areas is not in a well-developed state. In schools, teaching-learning methods and teaching expenses are not effectively practiced, and there is a lack of infrastructure, facilities, and qualified and experienced teachers. Measures need to be formulated to bring about improvements in these aspects, which will lead to an increase in student enrollment in schools. Providing access to

education enables individuals to develop their skills and abilities, thereby enabling them to carry out works and activities to continue their living conditions in an appropriate manner.

Training Programs - The development of training programs among rural communities is essential for the progress and well-being of individuals, as well as for increasing productivity and profitability. Agriculture is considered the main occupation of individuals in rural areas. To increase productivity, it is very important for individuals to enroll in training programs and gain knowledge in terms of modern and innovative methods and strategies. Training centers have been established, which provide knowledge and effectively contribute to the up-gradation of individuals' skills. Various fields include healthcare, food and nutrition, child development, handicrafts and artifacts, etc.

Distributive Justice - Distributive justice involves the functionality of access value, which includes the exercises of power and authority. It follows both common sense and empirical observation. Creating, structuring, strengthening access opportunities, and boundaries are related to the main features of management and distribution of power in society. To the extent that power needs to be transformed into authority, the value of access cannot be ignored. On the other hand, considerations of power in achieving desired goals and objectives are not sacrificed in the here and now sense. Justice systems establish access institutions rather than contentious institutions.

Medical and Healthcare

The establishment of healthcare centers is considered most important, as individuals of all age groups and backgrounds need to take care of their healthcare needs and requirements. When individuals are in good health, they are able to effectively participate in the implementation of various tasks and activities. This includes managing household responsibilities, child development, agriculture and allied activities, taking care of the needs and requirements of elderly family members, participating in social, political, religious, economic and cultural programs, and performing daily activities. In old age, individuals should take proper care of their health and undergo regular medical examinations.

While these measures have been successful in curbing poverty, this model has a very fundamental flaw. Under this model, resources are transferred from the urban economy to the rural economy for short-term political objectives. This is affecting both areas. The rural economy does not allow its own development and hinders growth and investment in the urban economy. An ideal policy should involve the government, panchayats and key village individuals, voluntary organizations and private companies. This will not only help reduce this imbalance but also have a multiplier effect on the overall economy. This will be a very long and difficult battle with meetings, but the reward is worth the effort.

4.4.7 Self-assessment questions

1. Write a brief note on the multi-purpose strategy of rural development as a cyclical process
2. Explain the main strategies related to rural development
3. Write a note on other strategies that promote

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RURAL INDUSTRIALIZATION MEASURES

5.1.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to explain the challenges of rural industrialization, the main problems and obstacles faced in the country's industrialization process.

Structure

5.1.1 Introduction

5.1.2 Rural Industrialization: Meaning and Importance

Importance of Rural Industrialization

5.1.3 Importance of Rural Industrialization

5.1.4 Role of Rural Industries in Development

5.1.5 Characteristics of Rural Industries

5.1.6 Types of Rural Industries

5.1.7 Challenges of Rural Industrialization

5.1.8 Measures to Promote Rural Industries

5.1.9

5.1.10 Self-assessment questions

5.1.1 Introduction

The declining employment opportunities in rural areas is one of the central issues significantly impacting rural development. Seasonal unemployment, partial unemployment, and outdated technology used by artisans are common in Indian villages. Finding jobs that match people's skills is a huge task for any government. Agriculture is not profitable. This has accelerated large-scale migration to urban areas, further exacerbating the condition of urban poverty.

worsened.

A recent challenge to the development of rural areas is the shift away from agriculture. The contradiction is that the commercial exploitation of resources in rural areas is systematically carried out by corporate interests. Due to the lack of access to information, knowledge, and technology, rural people are seeing their resources such as land, sand, soil, water, vegetation, herbs, trees, etc., being exploited for profit. Illiterate or semi-literate rural people close their businesses in villages and head to urban centers in search of employment in cities.

Since the mid-1950s, one of the best strategies adopted by India for employment generation, especially in rural areas, has been rural industrialization. There are many concepts, models, and experiments that have been successful in rural industrialization and mass employment generation in many parts of the country. These are also called the non-agricultural sub-sector.

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

Explain the importance of rural industrialization

Role of rural industries in development

Characteristics and types of rural industries in India.

5.1.2 Rural Industrialization: Meaning and Importance

Meaning

Industries are places that manufacture goods or items for human consumption. Industries provide employment to society. Industries contribute to the economic development of the country. Rural industries are non-agricultural activities that rely on rural resources and are primarily intended to create employment by efficiently utilizing locally available resources, human power, and indigenous or domestic technologies. These are small-scale in nature. They are generally located in villages. Therefore, they are prominently referred to as:

Small Scale Industries / Village Industries / Rural Industries. Since employment generation is one of the essential objectives of rural industries, they generally operate with a philosophy of producing in large numbers, as opposed to mainstream industries that produce in large quantities. This aims to reduce unemployment levels and increase individual and household incomes. Since the level of activity is small, financial requirements are also generally low. According to T.M. Doc, there is no uniform and accepted definition for the concept of "rural industries."

The term "rural industries" was first used in 1962 when the Rural Industries Projects program was recommended. In a report on the village and small industries sector, the Planning Commission (1988) defined rural industries along the following lines: "The term 'rural industries' refers to industries such as Khadi, village industries, handlooms, handicrafts, sericulture, coir, and small and service industries."

Thus, rural industrialization involves economic activities outside agriculture, conducted in villages, and varying in size from households to small factories. Some examples of these activities include cottage, small, village, and small-scale manufacturing and processing industries; and various types of services. Household industries have declined over time, while small-scale, non-household industries have expanded. Cottage enterprises - based on part-time family labor - have relatively lower capacity than small-scale, full-time, and specialized rural industries.

The word 'rural' used as a prefix to industrialization indicates the need for clear conditions and connectivity between industrialization processes and a specific segment of society. Industrialization is the process of producing goods and services using specific inputs, technologies, and manufacturing methods. Rural industry, in the traditional sense, is considered an economic activity characterized by ease of entry, reliance on indigenous

resources, small-scale operations, adapted technology, and skills acquired outside the formal school education system. However, this sector suffers from technological obsolescence, low productivity, inefficiency, inconsistent quality, rigidity, and reliance on the vagaries of nature.

The advent of new technologies that emerged from globalization and increased production calls for innovation or improvement in the technologies used in rural industries.

It is time to think about 'rural industrialization' as an effort that requires different innovations compared to state-sponsored small-scale industrialization to serve rural and semi-rural areas. The concept of rural industrialization facilitates avenues for employment in non-agricultural activities on a widely dispersed basis near the dwelling places of the poor. It was believed that to bring about a change in income distribution in favor of the poor, there was a need to increase the production of mass consumption and wage goods, which could be produced by village industries (VI) or small-scale industries (SSI). Applying technology and attracting the attention of potential consumers has also become urgent for the products of rural industries. According to Chuta and Sethuraman, rural industrialization is an employment-oriented development strategy that gives more importance to small-scale activities. These not only provide more employment and income opportunities for the rural poor

Especially facilitates their participation in development.

5.1.3 Importance of Rural Industrialization

In most developing countries - including India - the rural workforce is growing rapidly but employment opportunities are shrinking. As available land for agricultural expansion becomes increasingly scarce, non-agricultural employment opportunities must expand to curb rural poverty. Given the projected growth and composition of large-scale urban industries, they cannot absorb the increasing tide of workers migrating from rural areas to cities. We need to slow down the process of urban sprawl with high social and environmental costs such as congestion, pollution, exorbitant land costs, etc. Therefore, it is essential to divert manpower from the agricultural sector to the industrial and service sectors. In the service sector, as employment is limited, especially in rural areas, it is very important to develop the industrial sector, especially in the rural segment.

Rural industrialization is considered a vehicle for generating productive employment and income for the rural poor. The importance of rural industrialization is attributed to the following reasons:

- i) They can slow down urban migration and thereby reduce urbanization problems.
- ii) They improve the environment by reducing the concentration of industrial units in large cities.
- iii) They can increase rural income and provide non-agricultural employment to farmers.
- iv) They can reduce skilled and unskilled unemployment.
- v) They can promote balanced industrialization by avoiding excessive industrial concentration.
- vi) They are based on local needs and can better meet local consumption needs.

Therefore, the decentralization of industries to rural areas is one of the best possible development strategies for a densely populated country like India.

5.1.4 Role of Rural Industries in Development

Landless and other poor people have existed for ages. This is an important source of income and employment opportunities for them. In fact, agriculture and rural industries are complementary to each other. This sector has the second largest share in employment after agriculture. It touches the lives of the vulnerable and unorganized sections of society, more than half of whom are women, minorities, and marginalized sections. Fifty-seven percent of Micro and Small Enterprises (MSEs) units are single-person owned organizations.

They account for 32 percent of non-agricultural private incorporated enterprises and 29 percent of additional value.

This sector contributes over 40 percent of the gross turnover in the manufacturing sector, 45 percent of manufacturing exports, and over 35 percent of total exports.

Despite severe competition from a highly industrialized urban society, industrial activities in India have a very large spectrum. In what is called 'traditional', these artisans continue with their provided technologies, with minor improvements to adapt to changes in the sector or market demand. The Indian government supports rural industrialization activities through various official institutions and budget allocations. Their objective is to support rural industrialization, create an environment that enables the prevention of migration from rural areas to urban areas, and create employment at the local level. This ultimately increases individual and household incomes, leading to poverty reduction.

5.1.5 Characteristics of Rural Industries

Due to its immense diversity and constantly evolving context, the content of rural industrialization has remained a very difficult task. The best evidence for this is the migration of rural people to urban areas in search of employment in construction industries, hotels and restaurants, etc. Some special characteristics and main advantages of rural industry are described below:

i) For an economy like India, with abundant labor supply and similar unemployment and underemployment, village, Khadi, and small industries have special importance due to their high employment potential. Today, almost 40 million people are employed in these industries, either full-time or part-time. This number is much higher than the total organized individuals in

manufacturing and mining sectors.

ii) These industries also provide employment in the off-season, whereas agriculture provides only seasonal employment. Rural and cottage industries help people meet their employment problems in the off-season.

iii) Village, Khadi, and cottage industries provide employment to individuals falling under special categories such as women, the elderly, children, the physically challenged, etc. In addition, they create part-time opportunities for individuals working full-time elsewhere. Additional income.

iv) Most of these industries are located on household premises

It benefits employees.

Boon

Village and cottage industries are a boon for a labor-abundant and capital-scarce economy. Their capital-output and capital-labor ratios are comparatively very low. That is, the total capital investment required per unit of employment and the capital investment required per unit of output are comparatively very low.

vi) They promote non-inflationary growth due to their low capital-output ratio and short gestation period.

vii) Khadi and village industries have been found to be of special help to the weaker sections of society.

viii) These industries economically promote resource utilization and resource conservation. Easily adaptable technologies are adopted to ensure maximum utilization of locally available raw materials. Sometimes, unconventional raw materials are used, thus converting waste into wealth.

ix) These industries help reduce regional economic imbalances, as they thrive in almost all areas, including backward, tribal, hilly, and inaccessible areas.

x) These industries help increase employment opportunities and income, thereby accelerating the pace of rural development.

xi) Compared to large industries, small industries have received more attention due to the environmental problems they create.

Khadi and village industries do not use or use very little electrical energy or oil, so there has been no fuel crisis and foreign exchange crisis.

Based on scale and primary function, there are four groups of industries to be expanded or developed in rural areas in the Eighth Plan:

1. Traditional Village Industries: This includes Khadi, leather tanning, woodworking, handicrafts, cotton textiles, handlooms and power looms and garments, handicrafts, coir, sericulture, and wool development, etc.
2. Heavy Industry: There is increasing demand and scope in heavy industries as shown by the latest survey of rural consumer expenditures on heavy industry items. These include: (a) bio-mass (b) fertilizer plants using biological inputs for pesticides, (c) mini-steel plants, (d) ancillary engineering or medium and large farms that can meet demand - like plows, threshers etc.
3. Medium Group Industries: (a) Mini-cement plant that can use molasses or coal as energy and rural construction works, (b) minor paper plant, etc.
4. Light Industries: (a) Fodder and livestock industries, (b) increasing building and construction programs to meet household demand in rural areas, industries producing construction materials such as seamless, screens, door and window frames, and

roofing materials, (c) improved agricultural implements and machinery using steel and iron produced in rural areas

5.1.7 Challenges of Rural Industrialization

Some of the challenges of rural industrialization are as follows:

i) Multiplicity of Technology - The dualism in technology poses a huge challenge to rural industrialization. For example, on the one hand, hand-operated machines are used, and on the other hand, power looms are used.

In handlooms, handlooms and power looms exist. This diversity is reflected in many rural industries like food processing, manufacturing, leather products, weaving, pottery, paper manufacturing, food preservation and processing. Therefore, for SSI (Small Scale Industries), specific regional agglomeration is needed, and some protection mechanisms like quality standards, production capabilities, price stability, etc., should be considered.

ii) Productivity and Scale - The achievement of production requirements varies from one rural industry to another. These include average production, wage-production, wage-cum-average production, etc. Therefore, when promoting rural industries, the production model should be taken into consideration. According to a study conducted by Aliphon, the production system in rural industries located in Kerala shows that the wage and average production wage payment system is effective, as confirmed by the Panchayat.

iii) Entrepreneurial and Managerial Skills in Rural Industrialists - The lack of entrepreneurial and managerial skills in rural industries is common. Due to the lack of technological availability at the grassroots level, there is a lack of managerial efficiency in the decentralization of industrialization. Rural artisans and entrepreneurs need to be given awareness and skills on various aspects.

iv) Access to Credit - Access to institutional credit is always a problem for small entrepreneurs. Many rural industries suffer from a shortage of financial resources. With globalization, the credit system has changed, putting rural entrepreneurs in a debt crisis compared to urban entrepreneurs and the real estate market.

v) Marketing Infrastructure - Marketing of products produced by rural entrepreneurs is a major problem. As long as rural products do not enter the mainstream consumer goods, their products will not get good marketing. Therefore, without rural marketing infrastructure, rural industrialization will be a complete failure. The government has been urged to promote low-cost products.

produced and this will help rural institutions to provide profitable employment and reduce poverty.

vi) Redefining Rural Industries - In the context of globalization, redefining rural industries is a timely necessity. The definition given to small industry in 1979 does not suit institutional village industries. Although total investment in this industry has increased, per capita investment has not increased. T.S. Papola is in favor of redefining small, medium, cottage, and small industries.

vii) Lack of Coordination - There should be coordination between the central and state governments regarding small-scale and cottage industries. Under the centrally sponsored scheme, the central government takes up some industries like coir, sericulture, Khadi, and handicrafts. However, the implementation part is left to the state governments. In other words, the central government provides funds, financial assistance, and policy support, while the state government is responsible for implementation. However, state governments still consider it the central government's duty to promote this. As a result, there is confusion regarding coordination between the central and state governments.

These are some of the major challenges of rural industrialization.

5.1.8 Measures to Promote Rural Industries

The development of small-scale industries is promoted by many promotional measures provided by the government, which include the following:

- a) Market protection provided through reservation of goods for exclusive production in the small-scale sector. There has been a significant increase in the national list of reserved goods over the years, and it stood at 847 by the end of December 1987.
- b) Priority to the small-scale sector in government procurement. Under this program, more than 400 goods were reserved for exclusive purchase from the small-scale sector, but a limited number of goods (13 in December 1987) were reserved for purchase up to 75 percent and many goods (28 in December 1987) for purchase up to 50 percent.
- c) Infrastructure facilities provided through industrial estates, District Industries Centers (DIC), Small Industries Service Institutes, and other specialized institutions such as technical assistance, testing facilities, etc.
- d) Arrangements for the supply of scarce raw materials.
- e) Financial assistance through banks and other financial institutions.
- f) Policy of promoting ancillarization.

5.1.9 Summary

Rural industrialization is important in the context of migration from rural areas to urban areas for wage employment in cities. The profitability of agriculture makes agriculture suffer. While the Indian government helps farmers to make agriculture profitable and lucrative, at the same time, by promoting rural industrialization, it also aims to remove the excess population from agriculture. There are many government institutions in India that support rural industrialization, from raw material sourcing to marketing assistance. In the era of globalization and the free-market economy in India, many rural industries also primarily hold their main position in rural areas and serve the specific needs of urban consumers.

5.1.10 Self-assessment questions

1. What is the meaning of the term rural industrialization?
2. What is the importance of rural industrialization for India?
3. Explain the measures of rural industrialization for India?

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RURAL INDUSTRIALIZATION – PROBLEMS

5.2.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to explain the challenges of rural industrialization, the main problems and obstacles faced in the country's industrialization process.

Structure

5.2.0 Objectives

5.2.1 Introduction

5.2.2 Challenges of Rural Industrialization

5.2.3 Major problems and obstacles faced in the country's industrialization process:

5.2.4 Summary

5.2.5 Self-assessment questions

5.2.1 Introduction:

Due to inequalities in distribution, utilization of rural resources, or inequalities in utilization, village and cottage industries have played a prominent role in the Indian economy. The government has given utmost importance to the development of these industries through five-year plans and industrial policies, because they have high employment potential. Since they are an effective means to achieve development with social justice, many programs and schemes for their development have been formulated and implemented since the beginning of the planning era. This helps in the redistribution of income and wealth. Improving the quality of life of rural people is an unavoidable and simple problem. Solutions to this problem must be found within rural areas themselves. In essence, creating employment, increasing income, utilizing primary and secondary resources provided to rural areas, and utilizing them. From the already saturated agricultural sector to industry and secondary sectors.

It is necessary to diversify the workforce. It has been recognized that even with a high growth rate in long-term agriculture and other land-based activities, adequate income-generating employment cannot be provided for all rural workers. One-fifth of rural workers are engaged in non-agricultural activities. This proportion has shown a significant increase in recent years.

5.2.2 Challenges of Rural Industrialization

Some challenges of rural industrialization are as follows:

i) Multiplicity of Technology

The dualism in technology is a major challenge for rural industrialization. For example, on one side there are hand-operated tools, and on the other side there are power spinning, handloom, and powerloom. This diversity is seen in many rural industries such as food processing, construction, leather goods, carpentry, blacksmithing, paper making, food

preservation, and processing. Therefore, reservation of some areas specifically for SSIs (Small Scale Industries) is necessary, and quality standards, production capacities, price subsidies, and other protective mechanism issues can be considered.

ii) Type and Nature of Employment - The nature of employment needs varies from one type of rural industry to another. These include self-employment, wage-employment, wage-cum-self-employment, etc. Therefore, when establishing rural industries, the employment pattern should be considered. According to a study conducted by Algappan, the employment pattern in rural industries in Keerapalayam shows that the wage and self-employment wage payment system is effective, as confirmed by the Panchayat.

Technology at the grassroots level

iii) Management and Entrepreneurial Skills in Rural Entrepreneurs - The general lack of management and entrepreneurial skills in rural areas leads to stress and a lack of entrepreneurial acumen in decentralized industrial station units due to staff shortages. Rural artisans and entrepreneurs should be educated on various management skills.

iv) Access to Credit - Access to institutional credit is always a problem for small entrepreneurs. Many rural industries suffer from a shortage of financial resources. With globalization, there is a shift in the credit system towards urban entrepreneurs and the real estate market, putting rural entrepreneurs in a debt crisis.

v) Marketing Infrastructure

Marketing of products produced by rural entrepreneurs is a big problem. As long as rural products do not enter the normal supply chain, their products will not get a good market. Therefore, without rural marketing infrastructure, rural industrialization will be a complete failure. Chellappan urged the government to promote products generated through the Self Help Mechanism and stated that this would act as a headache medicine to provide permanent relief to rural enterprises.

vi) Defining Rural Industries In the context of globalization, defining rural industries is the need of the hour. The definition given to small industries in 1979 is not suitable for institutional village industries. Although total investments in these industries have increased, per capita investment has not. T.S. Papola is in favor of redefining small, medium, cottage, and tiny industries.

vii) Role Clarity - The role of central and state governments regarding small-scale and cottage industries should be clear. Under the centrally sponsored scheme, the central government takes up certain industries like coir, sericulture, khadi, and handicrafts. However, the implementation part is left to the state government. In other words, while the central government provides funding, financial concessions, and policy support for these industries, the state government takes care of the implementation. Nevertheless, state governments still consider it the central government's duty to promote this, resulting in confusion regarding role clarity between the central and state governments.

5.2.3 Major Problems and Obstacles Faced in the Industrialization Process of the Country:

1. Poor Capital Formation:

The poor rate of capital formation is considered one of the main inhibitors that have caused the slow industrial growth in India.

2. Political Factors:

The industrial policy pursued by the British rulers before independence was not at all favorable to the interests of the country. Thus, during 200 years of British rule, India remained a primary producing country, which ultimately pushed back the country's industrial development in its early period.

3. Lack of Infrastructure:

India is still lagging in terms of its infrastructure, and this has been a significant obstacle to the country's industrialization. Due to the lack of proper transportation (rail and road) and communication facilities in many parts of the country, industrial development could not be achieved despite huge development potential in those areas.

4. Poor Performance of the Agricultural Sector:

Industrial development in India is highly dependent on the performance of the agricultural sector. Thus, the poor performance of the agricultural sector as a result of natural factors is another important factor that has caused industrial stagnation in the country.

Agriculture not only provides raw materials for the industrial sector but also generates demand for the goods produced by it. Therefore, this poor performance of agriculture slows down the development of industries in India.

5. Gaps between Targets and Achievements:

The industrial sector has failed to achieve its overall targets throughout the planning period, except for the 1980s. In the first three plans, against a target industrial growth rate of 7, 10.5, and 10.7 percent, the actual achievements were 6, 7.2, and 9 percent respectively. From the third plan onwards, the gap between targets and achievements increased.

Only during the planning period could the industrial sector achieve its targets. Again, in the first half of the 1990s, the industrial sector miserably failed to achieve its target. This trend is against the smooth industrial development of the country.

6. Shortage of Skilled and Competent Personnel:

The country is facing the problem of a shortage of technical and competent personnel required for the country's industrial development. Due to the lack of properly trained and skilled personnel, it has become very difficult to operate the most advanced computerized machinery required for the country's industrial development.

Moreover, due to the inefficiency and lack of integrity of the personnel engaged in the industrial sector, resources in the industrial sector are being heavily wasted. Furthermore, social factors such as the lack of labor and capital and proper initiative and organizations on the part of the Indian people are also highly responsible for the slow pace of industrialization in the country.

7. Elite-Oriented Consumption:

In recent years, a strong tendency has emerged in large industrial houses to produce goods for the wealthy. Accordingly, the production of "white goods" such as refrigerators, washing machines, air conditioners, etc., has expanded significantly along with other luxury products.

But the production of goods for mass consumption has registered a slow growth rate. This clearly reveals the 'distortion of the output structure' of Indian industries. This has resulted in a recessionary trend in the market for these luxury products in recent years.

8. Concentration of Wealth:

The pattern of industrialization has resulted in the concentration of economic power in the hands of a few large industrial houses and has thus failed to achieve the objective of the plan in reducing the concentration of wealth and economic power. For example, Tatas with 38 companies increased their assets from Rs. 375 crores in 1963-64 to Rs. 14,676 crores in 1991-92.

Birlas' assets also increased from Rs. 283 crores in 1963-64 to Rs. 6,775 crores in 1990-91. Similarly, other large business houses are also multiplying their assets very rapidly and tightening their grip on the economy.

9. Poor Performance of Public Sector:

Despite achieving significant expansion during the planning period, the performance of public sector undertakings has been very poor. A good number of such undertakings are regularly incurring huge losses due to their faulty pricing policy and lack of proper management, requiring huge budget allocations every year. Thus, public sector investment has failed to generate the necessary surplus for further investments in the industrial sector of the country.

10. Regional Imbalances:

The concentration of industrial development in certain states has led to another problem of imbalance in the industrial development of the country. The western region comprising Maharashtra and Gujarat has achieved maximum industrial development. However, the plight of poor states, despite having huge development potential, is continuously being neglected in the country's industrialization process.

Despite huge public sector investments in backward states like Bihar, Orissa, and Madhya Pradesh, the 'trickling down effects' of such investment have not been seen. Various financial incentives introduced for backward area industrial development, such as capital subsidies and other facilities, have been mostly utilized to develop industries in backward areas of developed states, leading to a complete disregard for the demand of backward states.

11. Industrial Sickness:

Another peculiar problem faced by the industrial sector in the country is the increasing sickness due to bad and inefficient management. According to RBI estimates, as of March 31, 2003, the total number of sick industrial units in India was 1,71,316, and these sick industrial units accounted for Rs. 34,815 crores.

RBI's estimate further revealed that every seventh small-scale unit in India was sick by the end of December 1983. Thus, the increasing sickness of industrial units has led to a huge problem in the country's industrial development path.

12. Regime of State Controls:

Finally, the persistent regime of state controls and regulatory mechanisms, resulting from industrial inefficiency, stands in the way of the country's industrialization. In recent years, the government has undertaken some serious measures to make the necessary economic reforms in the industrial structure of both public and private sectors in the country.

Although these measures are very challenging in nature, they are expected to go a long way in removing the various obstacles mentioned above and achieving the country's industrial development in the coming years.

5.2.4 Summary

Initially, Indian rural industries achieved self-sufficiency. However, the gradually increasing production of cheap consumer goods by machines limited the growth of rural industries and thereby created unemployment. With agriculture having less capacity to absorb surplus labor, the rural population began migrating to urban areas, negatively affecting social, economic, and hygienic aspects. This trend increased with rapid population growth and increased availability of machine-made products. This situation made the development of labor-intensive industries, widely spread across all rural areas of the country, even more essential. This sector has immense potential to absorb a very large number of our expanding workforce. Thus, if the developed industries in our rural sectors are properly planned and implemented, it will usher in a new era of hope for the rural masses, most of whom live below the poverty line. Last but not least, any attempt to industrialize the rural spectrum will end in failure if full-fledged infrastructure is not created in those areas. It should not be forgotten that this is a fundamental prerequisite for realizing this noble idea.

5.2.5 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Write a brief note on the challenges of rural industrialization.
2. Explain the major problems and obstacles faced in the country's industrialization process.

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GLOBALIZATION AND ITS IMPACT ON RURAL SOCIETY AND AGRICULTURE

5.3.0 Objective of the Lesson

The objective of this lesson is to discuss the concept and issues related to rural development, the advantages of globalization for India, globalization and rural India, the impact of globalization on domestic agriculture, structural changes in globalization and agricultural markets, globalization and agricultural markets, and the impact of globalization on rural and Indian agriculture.

Structure

5.3.1 Introduction

5.3.2 Concept Underpinning of Globalization and Rural Development

5.3.3 Concept and Issues Related to Rural Development

5.3.4 Benefits of Globalization for India as a Whole

5.3.5 Globalization and Rural India

5.3.6 Impact of Globalization on Domestic Agriculture:

5.3.7 Structural Changes in World Agricultural Markets

5.3.8 Globalization and Agriculture and Rural Marketing:

5.3.9 Impact of Globalization on Rural and Indian Agriculture

5.3.10

5.3.11 Self-Assessment Questions

5.3.1 Introduction

Globalization has emerged as an irresistible force to repel economic, social, and cultural activities in all states of the world. The unhindered or free trade of goods, services, capital, technologies, ideas, information, and human resources, etc., globally appears to be an enormous demand of globalization, and there is no escape from this reality.

Globalization has positive and negative consequences and implications for all countries. It brings opportunities and poses threats to rural societies. Free trade, privatization, and similar competitive market forces are increasingly putting the rural economy at risk. To reverse the situation, threats must be faced and opportunities seized. The aggressive progress of globalization along with the market economy is steadily changing the old concepts, methods, and systems of rural development, especially in developing countries.

5.3.2 Concept Underpinning of Globalization and Rural Development

In this section, the concepts and dynamics related to globalization and rural development are discussed very briefly. In the era of globalization, the traditional concept and role of rural development have been changed with different perspectives. Both concepts are analyzed below with small details of their inherent implications and dynamics.

Concepts and Issues of Globalization

Globalization is now a cross-cutting issue in academic discourse. The concept of globalization is generally portrayed as an irresistible new force that will either destroy or save the planet. Globalization refers to the free flows of goods, services, capital, ideas, information, and people, which produce national border integration of many economic, social, and cultural activities. Rapid globalization has reduced the distance between the world's people. Some have gained and others have lost opportunities. Political economist, Robert J. Samuelson (2012) states, "Globalization is a double-edged sword: a powerful vehicle for increasing economic growth, spreading new technology, and raising living standards in rich and poor countries but an extremely controversial process that destroys national sovereignty, local culture and tradition, and threatens economic and social stability. Globalization is a highly controversial, complex, multidisciplinary discourse. No single definition taps its broad meaning, implications, and its afflictions. According to Stiglitz (2002), globalization means "the removal of barriers to free trade and the closer integration of national economies." It refers to the worldwide interconnectedness and interdependence of economic, political, social, cultural, and military spheres (Barakat, 2007). Globalization is the most profound source of international transformation since the Industrial Revolution. "The adjective 'global' refers to less a space defined by electronic flows and a state of mind" (Kofi Annan, 2000).

There are supporters and critics of globalization. Supporters positively equate globalization with openness, cosmopolitanism, and integration, while critics equate it with Western imperialism, corporate dominance, and prevalent consumerism.

In globalization, political, economic, cultural, and social events in the world are intertwined. This integration of global political, cultural, and social norms. The intensification and interconnectedness of activities result in concepts like a "shrinking globe." Kegley (2004:267) defines globalization as "a shorthand for a group of interconnected phenomena transforming world politics. The most common concept frames globalization in terms of internationalization. It describes the increase in transactions between states, reflected in transactions, investments, and capital flows. The process of internationalization is facilitated and shaped by inter-state agreements on trade, investment, and capital, as well as by domestic politics allowing the private sector to transact abroad (Woods, 2008-252). From this perspective, Scholte (2000-15) positions "global" as another adjective to describe cross-broad relations among actors and "globalization" frames the increase in international exchange and interdependence. Internationalization involves expanded movements, messages, and ideas among people's countries. Globalization refers to the process by which global economies become increasingly integrated with the global economy and policymaking, and it also refers to an emerging "global culture" in which people often consume the same goods and services across countries and use a common language for business, English. These changes facilitate economic integration and aid its further expansion (Todaro and Smith, 2006).

Globalization refers to the continuous process of internationalization of capital accumulation. There are some guiding forces of the concept of globalization, which include some key ideas, issues, and concepts such as liberal democracy, freedom, individualism, free enterprise, and pluralism, which are inseparable from the process of globalization. Global pressures are increasingly changing the nature of the state and the nature of rural development, local governance, and institutions. Globalization has also been discussed in terms of homogenization versus heterogenization (or integration versus fragmentation) and here it is linked with modernization and development debates (Robertson, 1992; Featherstone, 1995; Hall, 1997). Globalization is another term for Western colonialism and a buzzword to refer to the latest phase of capitalism. Globalization has emerged differently for different people. Economists see globalization as steps towards a fully integrated global market. Political scientists consider globalization as the decline of territorial sovereignty and the rise of non-state power players. Business schools apply the term to a world without borders. In the case of this paper, globalization refers to free trade, openness of the economy, privatization, and the interconnectedness of Bangladesh's economy with global economies.

Globalization, as an institutional process, began in 1986 with the Uruguay Round Trade talks, which concluded in 1994. Later, the WTO was created in 1995. It is an international organization designed to enforce the rules of the game in international trade. Although globalization has become a frequently recurring terminology and a buzzword among development thinkers and practitioners, globalization has not yet been properly defined. However, all definitions miss the point that capitalism is the current force of globalization. Globalization is a phenomenon arising through historical changes within a broad framework of continuity. The history of globalization goes through five distinct phases such as mercantilism (1350-1650), colonialism (1650-1830): imperialism (1830-1945); neo-colonialism (1945-1985) and globalization (1985 - onwards).

5.3.3 Concept and Issues of Rural Development

The concept of rural development encompasses multi-dimensional factors of rural life. Conceptually, rural development is a multidisciplinary field related to economics, political science, public administration, public health, business management, cooperative credit, community operation, calculation, and other fields (Maprek and Nasrullah, 2005:1). The World Bank (cited in Obaidullah, 1995) defined rural development as a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of a specific group of people.

It involves implementing development projects for marginalized groups in rural areas. The concept outlined in the World Bank's policy paper highlights the improvement in the living conditions of the poor, including small farmers, landless, low-income, low-income, small businesses, and other groups living in the informal sector. Rural development means increasing productive opportunities in agriculture and non-agricultural activities, facilitating physical, social, and cultural infrastructure development (roads, markets, electricity, etc.), and thereby increasing the productivity of families living in rural areas and consequently increasing their real income (Shen, 1996). It includes specific development activities related to productive sectors such as agriculture, fisheries, forests, industries, infrastructure development (roads, markets, electricity, etc.), social welfare (health, nutrition, education, etc.), and support for productive activities such as research, training, credit, processing, marketing, etc. Therefore, rural development is a concept everywhere, which faces governments with every complex problem of self-governance with the attraction of many public services and government organizations.

Rural development means cultivating those values, socio-economic systems, institutions, and incentives that provide people with a dignified life and purpose and give special satisfaction to all members of rural society regarding their primary, physical, mental, and aesthetic needs (Asad, 1983). In political discussions, policy debates, and resource allocation, there is often little difference between national development and rural development policy. According to President Julius Nyerere of Tanzania, "the policy related to rural development is a policy for national development." Such a policy related to rural development is necessary for countries that include a large rural sector (Todaro, 1991) as part of national development. Rural development refers to a development idea that indicates qualitative and quantitative changes in a socially desirable direction (Faizullah, 1981). This means improving the living standards of rural people. It involves changes in agricultural and industrial productivity in the rural sector, changes in health, education, and communication infrastructure, changes in the rural people's lifestyle towards increased thinking and increased living. It includes technological changes and innovations to modernize agricultural practices to meet the growing demand for food and proper governance. It aims to create an effective cooperative system and a cooperative social institution to change the rural environment to improve living standards (Asaduzzaman, 1981). Rural development supports the industrialization of the country and achieves the desired results (Abul, 1979).

5.3.4 Overall Benefits of Globalization for India

A-Economic Benefits

- Markets are filled with products that include increased quality & latest technologies; and the consumer is free to choose the product he likes. These innovative products have also increased the living standards of the Indian people.
- India has access to the world market for its products and services.
- Globalization has increased the flow of money into India as MNCs have set up their operations in India and are providing employment to Indians. Besides, they are paying huge taxes to the government.
- The import of advanced technology has been continuously beneficial for Indian producers. By using these technologies, they are making their products highly competitive in the international market.
- Exports are now getting higher production benefits as there is a need to increase production quantities according to domestic and international requirements.
- Globalization has also helped India in earning foreign exchange as exports are taking place to various countries in the world. Besides this, Indian companies have also established their organizations abroad.
- Goods and services are in accordance with international standards. Economic activities are being guided by patent, copyright, and WTO agreements. • Free trade zones are being developed.

B-Political Benefits

- Increased interdependence has also reduced the chances of war between countries.
- Democratic values are spreading globally.
- There is a growing desire for international justice against crimes, pollution, and terrorism. The importance of international organizations is increasing.

C- Socio-Cultural Benefits

- As Indians are getting the latest knowledge and ideas related to developed countries, globalization has played a major role in changing the social outlook of the Indian people. Now the traditional lifestyle is changing.
- By removing cultural barriers, the narrow mentality of humans, especially Indians, has decreased. Now the whole world has become a small village. People have started thinking logically and scientifically.
- Globalization has also positively influenced geographically backward areas and thereby regional inequalities have been reduced.
- Increased migration between countries has removed cultural barriers globally and developed tourism.

D- General Benefits

- Due to rapid globalization, developed countries are very conscious in choosing environmentally friendly products, and therefore the idea of "green consumerism" is also gaining popularity in India. The desire for environmental protection is continuously increasing.
- The role of the media in continuously spreading the latest ideas and developments globally has changed globally.

If we think in terms of overall benefits, globalization has increased employment opportunities, income, investment-production, and has given a great boost to every sector in the Indian economy. In addition, globalization has had a great impact on Indian culture & value system. But the question arises - "Has globalization had any impact on rural life?", where more than 60% of the Indian population resides. When the Indian economy was opened up in the era of globalization, the government hoped that the benefits of globalization would reach rural India. But the reality is contrary to this idea. Globalization has also widened income disparities in India. It has increased the gap between the rural economy and the urban economy. It has increased the gap between the rich and the poor.

5.3.5 Globalization and Rural India

Unfortunately, globalization is responsible for unemployment, cultural degradation, and competitive struggles. According to ILO (2004) - "Globalization has enriched the lives of the poor and the rich. The IT sector has especially benefited. But the benefits have not yet reached the majority, and new patterns have increased for the marginalized, socially excluded, and rural poor. Western perceptions dominating global media are not in line with ground realities, they encourage consumerism among the poorest and bring cultural and moral degradation. In other words, it appears that the benefits of globalization have been mainly reaped by the urban population in India. The following facts reveal that villages have been directly affected by the pitfalls of globalization.

- Farmers are still living in mud houses.
- Due to globalization, some countries, especially developed countries, have become industrial centers covering global demand. This has reduced agricultural activities in developing countries, which leads to unemployment.

- The rural population is still suffering from unemployment because the laborers are mostly uneducated and unskilled. Machines and advanced technologies have greatly reduced the number of human workers.
- The government has not completed the electrification of villages. Additionally, villages with electricity get an average of only 3-4 hours of supply per day.
- The road system in Indian villages is either lacking or of poor quality.
- Although the government has made primary education compulsory, many villages lack educational facilities. Children have to travel long distances to reach their schools.
- The study material and mid-day meals available to rural children are of poor quality.
- Globalization has caused a blending of cultures. While this has reduced the narrow outlook of humans, it has also led to cultural degradation, especially in India. Western ideas and culture have begun to kill the social morality of the Indian people. More people have become ignorant about social, ethical, and moral values.
- There are no technical education facilities in Indian villages, and it is not always possible for everyone to get access to urban areas for technical education. Therefore, rural workers remain unskilled.
- As many villages lack sufficient electricity and modern communication facilities, the scientific outlook among rural Indian people is weakening.
- The government has not done enough to encourage small cottage industries in villages. Therefore, educated rural youth remain unemployed and are migrating to urban areas.
- The Indian rural population still prioritizes traditions, culture, and social values. Tradition is still more important than science.
- Imports have further worsened the situation of farmers as they cannot compete with imported goods in terms of price and quality.
- The situation of artisans in villages is also pathetic. They too are unable to compete with machine-made goods.
- As living standards have increased quantitatively, workers are migrating, but the production of resources is not increasing at a significant rate. Therefore, globalization is increasing the number of poor people who have to cover their basic needs.
- As competition has increased globally, sustained support and development for small, cottage, and medium industries have become very difficult.
- Mainly, developing countries have considered foreign capital as the right medicine for economic development. However, this has created many obstacles in the free and successful functioning of agricultural activities. Similarly, excessive reliance on foreign investment is also detrimental to the country's political survival.
- As it is human nature to quickly adopt bad things rather than good ones. Therefore, in the context of globalization, it has changed the cultural values of the Indian masses & due to this, villages have suffered a lot.

5.3.6 Impact of Globalization on Domestic Agriculture:

Globalization is not always a new hidden phenomenon. It was there during the colonial period. In the nineteenth century, when European buyers came to India, even then, Indian spices were exported to one type of country in Europe, and farmers in South India suggested that they should develop those pieces.

Until now, it is one of the key commodities exported from India. During the British period, cotton bales from India attracted British farmers, and finally, cotton thread or the like.

was exported to Britain as raw material for industries. The cotton fabric industry in Manchester and Liverpool developed due to the regular availability of cotton from India.

Due to the Champaran movement, which started in Bihar in 1917, the surrounding farmers had to develop indigo on their land. Because it became necessary for the fabric industries in Britain. At the stop, they were unable to develop food grains to protect their homes. After 1990, in globalization, farmers in India opened up to new demand conditions.

Despite being a critical producer of rice, cotton, tea, jute, espresso, and spices, our vegetation could not compete with developed countries due to highly subsidized agriculture in those countries. For agriculture to be successful in India, it was desired to provide proper pressure on the conditions of small and marginal farmers. The Green Revolution did wonders then. But now it is controversial, due to high chemical use, land degradation has occurred. Nowadays, the key word is genetic evolution.

This includes genetic engineering. Genetic engineering [3] is considered a powerful complement in inventing new hybrid engineering types. Genetic organic farming is very much in vogue. Because it is made without the facility of manufacturing chemicals like pesticides, fertilizers, and insecticides. Therefore, it does not adversely affect the environment. Indian farmers should diversify their cropping pattern from cereals to high-value vegetation. This increases income and simultaneously reduces environmental degradation.

5.3.7 Structural Changes in Global Agricultural Markets

The relative decline of the agricultural sector in growing economies is one of the most striking features of economic development. The decline in their agricultural comparative advantage when industrialization (or another sector like mining, manufacturing, or services is experiencing an export-led boom or when foreign aid is steadily flowing in) is also typical for countries with reasonably high population densities. The importance of agriculture in national GDP and employment, arable land and freshwater, as well as capital per worker, and the availability of modern agricultural and non-agricultural technologies vary widely across regions of the world. Relative factor prices and therefore agricultural comparative advantage. It is difficult to compile adequate indicators of agricultural comparative advantage because government policies distorting food markets are so widespread and due to the range of available technologies through adaptive research and development (R&D) investments to suit various relative factor scarcities (Hayami & Ruttan 1985; Albalan et al. 2009). Therefore, the sector's share in national exports relative to the global average, or net exports, as well as the ratio of exports to imports of primary agricultural products (shown in Table 1 for key regions of the world), are very limited reflections of comparative advantage, and they also hide a great deal of inter-regional variation.

It is difficult to mobilize indicators, as government policies distorting food markets are very widespread and due to the range of available technologies through adaptive research and development (R&D) investments to suit various relative factor scarcities (Hayami & Ruttan 1985; Albalan et al. 2009). Therefore, the sector's share in national exports relative to the global average, or net exports, as well as the ratio of exports to imports of primary agricultural products (shown in Table 1 for key regions of the world), are very limited reflections of comparative advantage, and they also hide a great deal of inter-regional variation.

5.3.8 Globalization and Agriculture and Rural Marketing:

Globalization, coupled with liberalization, led to a decrease in government investment in agriculture. In the pre-globalization period, the country's food grain production was 3.5%, while in the post-globalization period, it fell to 1.7%. One factor for this decline is the reduction in subsidies given to farmers, resulting in an increase in food grain prices in the market. On the other hand, the average income of common people in India has not increased accordingly. For example, the wholesale food grain index increased from 179 points to 410 points. However, the average national income fell from 193 points to 122 points. Thus, the situation of common people in globalized India has not improved as expected.

According to the latest FAO estimates, agriculture and forestry account for 2% of the total global energy. The global land area dedicated to agriculture is 38.5%, and the total global water withdrawal used for agriculture is 95%. Agriculture provides healthy consumption and commodities for export and manufacturing sectors. There must be an adequate marketing policy system to ensure proper returns or compensation for efforts made by tilling the soil. Market information is a tool to increase the efficiency of the marketing system and promote better price formation. Marketing should be customer-oriented and provide benefits to the farmer, transporter, trader, processor, etc.

5.3.9 Impact of Globalization on Rural and Indian Agriculture:

The impact of globalization will be on rural and urban India but will be slow. It will have an impact on target groups like farmers, youth, and women. Farmers, today, are in close contact with the latest information and technology. On youth, its impact will be on knowledge and information.

and on women, it still depends on socio-economic factors. In fact, leadership in any product or service is primarily linked to leadership in rural India, except for some lifestyle-based products that depend on urban India. Broadly, the impact of globalization on rural and agricultural marketing potential in India is mainly: increased income and purchasing power, market flexibility, changes in consumer behavior, competition in urban markets, new employment opportunities, green revolution, improved credit facilities through banks, etc.

Experts hoped that globalization would contribute to balanced development in the agricultural sector, changes in the economic conditions of farmers, fair prices for agricultural products, and the start of agricultural, rural industries, cottage industries, small industries, providing employment to farmers, and making them happy, but this belief turns out to be wrong. According to WTO policy, India must reduce import duties on agricultural goods by 50% by 2008. In the future, India will have to compete in the agricultural sector. Also, India will have to import 5% of the domestic market. 25% of the Indian population is still below the poverty line, and 60% of the population depends on agriculture. The share of agricultural income in India's gross national income is 23.6%, compared to 5% in Australia, 4% in Canada, 3% in America, and 2% in England, respectively. 62% of the total agricultural land in India depends on rainwater. Due to the very small area of land under possession, technological development has not occurred, so production costs are high. The use of chemical fertilizers in India is very low, only 84 kg per hectare. But 266 kg per hectare, 360 kg in China, 360 kg in Japan, 519 kg in Belgium. Agricultural loans in India are also very low. Compared to loans provided for vehicles or homes at 7% to 8%, agricultural loans are provided at 15% to 16%. Irrigated land in India is 38%, 52% in China, 62% in Japan, and 72% in Pakistan. Also, agricultural production in

India is very low. India ranks first in pulse production and second in groundnut production. Third in rice, wheat, and tobacco production. India imports tea, coffee, rice, wheat, sugar, tobacco, spices, cashews, sesame, oil, fruits and vegetables, meat and fish, as well as legumes, dairy products, cashews, edible oil, chicken, nuts, etc.

Developed countries are using dumping techniques to maintain their dominance in the global market. Developed countries are selling their agricultural goods at lower prices than competitors and below their total production cost. This is causing adverse effects on developing countries.

According to the WTO agreement, developed countries have decided to give 5% of the total value of their agricultural goods as grants, and developing countries 10%. But developed countries like America, European countries, Japan, South Korea, and Canada are giving various grants to the agricultural sector. Developing countries have limits on import duties and quotas on their agricultural products. Since there is no limit on grants given to farmers by developed countries through Green Box and Blue Box, developed countries can sell at very low prices. This affects the agricultural sector and farmers in developing countries. In 2000-2001, the Indian government allowed the export of 40 lakh tons of wheat, but since the prices of Indian wheat in the international market were very high, India could only export 3 lakh tons of wheat. The World Bank chairman once said, "Developed countries give 280 to 300 billion dollars as grants, while India gives 45,780 crores as grants. In India, grants are less than 4% of the value of agricultural goods. But WTO says to reduce grants because developed countries are not told about grants."

5.3.10 Conclusion

The study clearly shows that agriculture plays a crucial role in the economy. The government should formulate policies that equally benefit all farmers, especially landless farmers and agricultural laborers. The government should make all efforts to provide scientific awareness to farmers to enable them to withstand international competition. Land reforms, use of hybrid pesticides, fertilizers, and irrigation facilities are necessary for technological development. The government should focus on these problematic areas to ensure that the impact of globalization is favorable to Indian agriculture. Since we cannot export agricultural products at low prices, we must bend our policies according to WTO and benefit our farmers. We should prepare a draft of strategies based on the strategies of developed countries. Farmers should be trained and guided to start agriculture-related industries. If these remedies are implemented, Indian agriculture will be energized in globalization.

5.3.11 Self-Assessment Questions

Write a brief note on Globalization and Rural India Concept and Issues of Rural Development.

Explain the impact of globalization on domestic agriculture and structural changes in global agricultural markets.

Write about globalization and agriculture and rural marketing and the impact of globalization on rural and Indian agriculture.

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NGO PARTNERSHIP AND EMPOWERMENT RELATED TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT

5.4.0 Objective of the Lesson

Strategies

The objective of this lesson is to explain the functions of NGOs and their role in promoting sustainable community development empowerment, microfinance and sustainable community development, capacity building and sustainable community development, self-reliance and sustainable development.

Structure

5.4.1 Introduction

5.4.2 Functions of NGOs and Sustainable Community Development

5.4.3 Role of NGOs in Promoting Empowerment

5.4.4 Microfinance and Sustainable Community Development

5.4.5 Capacity Building and Sustainable Community Development

5.4.6 Self-reliance and Sustainable Community Development

5.4.7.

5.4.8 Self-Assessment Questions

5.4.1 Introduction

In the last decade, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) have attracted more attention from scholars and development practitioners. They have become important agents of the development process in Southern countries in all their main areas of work such as humanitarian aid, long-term development, policy making and political advocacy (Attacks 1999). On the other hand, especially in developing countries, there is a current opinion that NGOs are a viable alternative to government as channels for development aid. According to Streeten (1997), some functions and benefits of NGOs are: (1) they are good at reaching and mobilizing poor and remote communities; (2) they help empower poor people to gain control over their lives and they work with and strengthen local institutions

and strengthen; (3) they manage projects at lower cost and more efficiently than government agencies; and (4) they promote sustainable development.

5.4.2 Functions of NGOs and Sustainable Community Development

This section highlights the promotion of NGOs, functions and sustainable community development. Specifically, discussions will be held on functions related to microfinance

provision, community capacity building and the initiation of self-reliance. Ultimately, sustainable community development is achieved. Especially when the community is empowered, the "bottom-up approach" in community development brings empowerment to the community and finally sustainable community development. According to Finger (1994), the bottom-up approach emphasizes community participation, grassroots movements and local decision-making. It was argued that community participation and grassroots initiatives promote participatory decision-making and local self-reliance (Panda 2007). In the bottom-up approach, people are able to define their own problems and have the ability and capacity to solve them by organizing and participating themselves.

5.4.3 Role of NGOs in Promoting Empowerment

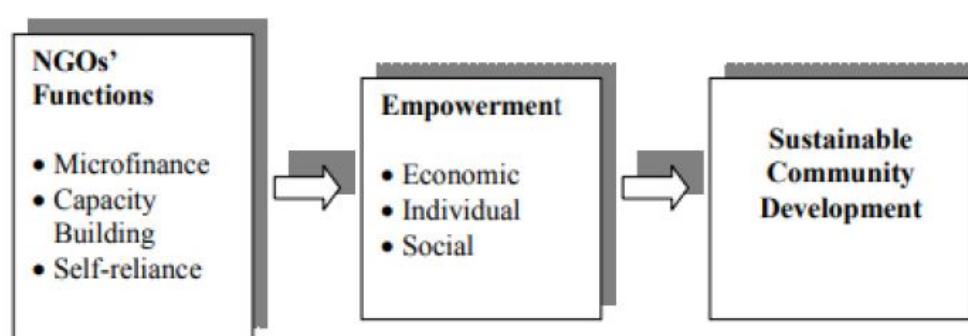


Fig. 1. Theoretical framework of the functions of NGOs in promoting sustainable community development

Fig. 1. Theoretical framework of the functions of NGOs in promoting sustainable community development

Figure 1 outlines the relationships between NGO functions, empowerment, and sustainable community development. From this perspective, the functions of NGOs in community development, among others, include developing local production and local markets; helping the community develop social, capital and human resources; increasing knowledge and skills; encouraging people to participate in activities and acting as a network between the community and systems. Participation in these activities leads to their empowerment. In the long run, the result is sustainable community development.

5.4.4 Microfinance and Sustainable Community Development

In the 1990s, scholars increasingly referred to microfinance as an effective tool for poverty reduction (Rekha 1995; Serven and Ghazanfar 1999; Panforms and Johnson 1999). Axall and

(1997). Mayoux (2000) and Cheston and Khan (2002) highlighted the importance of microfinance in empowerment. Microfinance is defined as efforts to improve loan and savings services for the poor (Shreiner 2001). It is currently being promoted as a key development strategy to promote poverty eradication and economic empowerment. It has the ability to effectively address physical poverty, the physical deprivation of goods and services, and income to achieve them by granting financial services to families not supported by the formal banking sector (Sheraton 2004). Microcredit programs provide small loans and savings opportunities to those traditionally excluded from commercial financial services. As an inclusive development strategy, microfinance programs emphasize women's economic contribution as a way to increase overall economic capacity in national economies.

According to Cheston and Khan (2002), microfinance is one of the most popular forms of financial empowerment for women. It generally provides credit to poor women who are excluded from formal credit institutions. Since the 1990s, microfinance institutions have addressed issues of sustainability, participation, and empowerment. These issues have been researched and discussed by donor agencies, NGOs, feminists, and activists (Johnson and Rogaly 1997; Razavi 1997; Kabir 1999; Mayoux 2001; Mahmood 2003). However, there are three fundamentally different approaches to microfinance under these shared concerns: financial sustainability, feminist empowerment, and poverty eradication. The three microfinance approaches have different goals, along with different perspectives on how to incorporate gender into microfinance policy and programs (Maoux 2000).

Microfinance empowers women by putting capital in their hands and enabling them to earn independent income and contribute financially to their families and communities. This economic empowerment is expected to increase self-esteem, dignity, and other forms of empowerment for female beneficiaries. Some evidence suggests that microfinance empowers women in some domains, such as participation in decision-making, a more equal status for women in the family and community, political power and rights, and increased self-esteem (Cheston and Kuhn 2002). Well-being as an output of microfinance covers not only economic indicators, but also other indicators such as community education, environment, recreation, and access to social services. It is related to quality of life (Asnarulzadi 2002).

NGOs help communities through microfinance to achieve economic stability, reduce poverty, create jobs, and promote income generation. In developing countries, sustainability is linked to poverty and gross inequalities of power and resources (Hamnett and Hassan 2003). In third world countries, the ecosystem sometimes conflicts with the socio-economic needs of local people who depend on the local ecosystem for their survival (Nygren 2000). In contrast, in developed countries, as Broad and Winn (2000) noted, more emphasis is placed on the environmental aspect of sustainable development. In these countries, the wealth of the country and most individuals has reached a certain level, so sustainability has been achieved by primarily worrying about issues such as climate change, biodiversity, loss of natural environment, and over-consumption of natural resources, especially renewable ones (Hibbard and Chuntong 2004).

5.4.5 Capacity Building and Sustainable Community Development

As mentioned earlier, capacity building is another NGO strategy that helps bring about sustainable community development. It will be:

Capacity building is a method of building independence.

- i. A 'means to an end', where the intention is for others to undertake programs.
- ii. The intention of the 'end' is to enable others, from individuals to government departments, to have greater capacity to work together to solve problems.
- iii. Capacity building strategies are routinely included as an important element of effective implementation (NSW Health 2001).

Before initiating capacity building in programs, practitioners must identify pre-existing capacities such as skills, structures, partnerships, and resources. Frankish (2003) accounted for several dimensions for community capacity including capacity (resources, opportunities,

and knowledge), human resources (skills, motivations, confidence, and relational capacities and trust), and social resources (networks, partnership structures,

including community capacity for participatory trusts and bonding). UNDP (1997) introduced capacity building as a process by which individuals, groups and organizations enhance their capacities to (1) perform core functions, solve problems, define and achieve goals; and (2) understand and deal with their development needs in a broader context and in a sustainable manner. Furthermore, in terms of the functions of NGOs, Langran (2002) defined capacity building as the ability of one group (NGOs) to strengthen the development capacities of another group (local communities) through education, skills training and institutional support.

Capacity building is not a predetermined set of activities, but an approach to development. There is no single way to build capacity. While experience tells us that there is a need to work in key operational areas, practitioners approach each situation individually to identify pre-existing capacities and develop specific strategies for the program or organization in its time and place. NGOs, by providing education, skills and knowledge, develop the capacity of the community towards achieving sustainable development. In fact, NGOs act as capacity builders to help the community develop resources, raise awareness, motivate participation in the project and finally improve the quality of life of the community.

The link to empowerment is often cited as one of the causes and outcomes of community capacity building. Empowerment is discussed at the level of individual empowerment (changes in skills, knowledge, consciousness and awareness, hope, action and ability to influence change) and changes in broader social structures and processes, increasing resources and opportunities (Verity 2007). Furthermore, in relation to sustainability, capacity building has been identified as one of the key strategies for capacity building towards sustainable development in most sustainable development policies. For example, in a program that trains women to establish a small enterprise, there will be a positive outcome for women's cooperation in starting a business, but the sustainable outcome will depend on whether women have the capacity to make it work and the income generated from it without external financial or technical assistance (Viswanath 1991).

Many researchers have argued that building community capacities and promoting empowerment are more effective ways to achieve sustainable community development than programs and success indicators imposed by external experts (Harrison 1998; Mobbs 1998). They argue that external experts generally have limited knowledge and understanding of the specific context, needs, and problems of the community. Local solutions are considered important outcomes of the capacity-building approach to achieving sustainable community and economic development (2005). For example, to increase people's participation to achieve sustainable development, several factors such as skills, leadership, knowledge, physical resources, and stakeholder representation need to be considered.

5.4.6 Self-reliance and Sustainable Community Development

Self-reliance is another strategy that affects sustainable community development. Effective community development rests on a foundation of self-reliance. The concept of self-reliance is strategically at the core of community development and is related to other concepts such as mutual aid, self-help, local people's participation, and rural progress. Self-reliance promotes the need for people to improve their situation through local initiatives, their capacities, and their own assets. Fonchingong and Fonjong (2002) suggested that self-reliance is increasingly adopted as an operational method for community development.

According to Kelly (1992), self-reliance means people relying on their own resources and being independent of funds raised outside the community. A self-reliant strategy relies on the willingness and ability of local people to rely on their own available resources and technology that they can control and manage. A self-reliant strategy requires optimal utilization of all human, natural, and technological resources available (Agere 1982). While reliance on the state may be desirable for the short term, it should not be a long-term goal, as the goal of community development should ultimately be self-reliance. Reliance on external resources leads to a loss of community autonomy and independence. On the other hand, autonomous communities develop only in the absence of such external dependence. Therefore, to achieve self-reliance, community workers (e.g., NGOs) and community groups must discover their own potential and seek ways to innovatively develop such discovered potential to be used as sources of wealth for community development (Ife and Tesoriero 2006).

Motivating and mobilizing the community to be self-reliant and participate in development programs is an important objective of NGOs. According to Korten (1990), the second strategy of NGOs focuses on developing people's capacities to better meet their own needs through self-reliant local action. In the second generation strategy, Korten (1990) stated that local inertia in the village or community is at the heart of the problem. There is potential energy in the community but it remains inactive due to the inertia of tradition, isolation, and lack of education. However, this inertia is broken by the intervention of an outside change agent (NGOs and other agents) who helps the community realize its potential by introducing education, organization, consciousness raising, small loans, and simple

new technologies. This is an emphasis on local self-reliance with the intention that the benefits continue through community self-help action beyond the period of NGO assistance (Korten 1990). Therefore, NGOs, through the strategy of self-reliance, can facilitate the sustainable development of the community.

5.4.7

The importance of NGOs in achieving sustainable community development through microfinance, capacity building, and self-reliance. Through microfinance, NGOs help community members improve their employment, income-generation, and financial situation. They then become economically strong. On the other hand, NGOs develop the community's capacities such as skills, abilities, knowledge, and assets, and motivate the community to participate in projects to improve their quality of life. NGOs act as capacity builders to help the community achieve empowerment, especially individual-visual empowerment.

Since the philosophy of community development is to be independent of external agents, the community must rely on its own resources. NGOs help the community discover its capacities and mobilize a self-sufficient community. By definition, empowerment means people have more control over livelihood resources. Therefore, the ultimate outcome of community development is the community's independence from external agents in shaping its agenda and managing its affairs. This process involves capacity building, where individuals participate in human capital training, transfer of power from donor to recipient, and gaining support from stakeholders (World Bank Group 1999). When people are fully empowered, they can contribute to sustainable development (Lyons et al. 2001). Capacity building and empowerment are the best ways to achieve sustainable community development. Therefore, NGOs help empower the community through certain programs and functions such as

microfinance, capacity building, and self-reliance, and ultimately contribute to sustainable community development.

5.4.8 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Write a brief note on the functions of NGOs and sustainable community development.

Explain the role of NGOs in promoting empowerment and microfinance and sustainable community development.

Write about capacity building and sustainable community development and self-reliance and sustainable community development.

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**ACHARYA NAGARJUNA UNIVERSITY
CENTER FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION**

**SEMESTER - II
SOCIOLOGY**

Paper-3: RURAL SOCIOLOGY AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Time: Three hours

Maximum: 70 Marks

Answer any Five Questions

All questions carry equal marks

1. Analysis various approaches to the study of community
2. Explain the difference between rural and urban communities
3. Explain land holding structure in India
4. Explain changing character of land distribution
5. Discuss various poverty eradication programs in India
6. Give an account on causes and consequences of rural-urban migration
7. Write an essay community development program
8. Explain rural development strategies and programs in India
9. Discuss the impact of globalization on rural community
10. Explain the role of NGOs in rural development.